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# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

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Dr. Leonard Hill of the London Hospital is conducting a series of experiments to determine how much harder a man can work after inhaling oxygen.

INHALES OXYGEN TO INCREASE MUSCULAR ENERGY.—[See page 6.]





## OXYGEN AND HUMAN EXERGY.

BY JOHN S. HAYES, A. B. M. D.

Oxygen is the life-maintaining gas. It is the most useful and the most abundant of all the elements as we still call them. Its combination with other substances—oxidation—makes heat and that is why the sunniest body is generally warmer than the atmosphere about it. All animal and vegetable life depends upon oxygen, under the beneficent influence the plants give out this gas which thus freed is respired in animal life. And by the term respiration in the physiological sense we mean not only the series of actions known as breathing (but also that in respiration oxygen is carried from the lungs by the blood, through the minutest capillaries to the uterine cells and the most microscopic tissues of the body giving to it strength and warmth and life.

In point of fact life itself in our present knowledge is in one battle without oxygen, which is much more important than food to the human economy. Without the latter one may exist for months without the former one must die within a few minutes (consider also metabolism. Normal metabolism is the perfect chemical transformation of oxygen, fluids and food stuffs into healthy tissues. The process is a never-resting an ever-changing one. Respiration provides the oxygen. Ingestion provides the fluids and the food stuffs. And in that it faithfully complements the work of the other substances are combined in the constant manufacture of fresh cells and tissues to take the place of those which are constantly dying and being removed by way of the lungs (carbon dioxide and watery vapor) and the excretory organs.

We are thus able to give an idea of the most valuable diets of the evolutionists that normal living is the right adjustment of internal relations to external relations again whatever amount of power an organism expends in any state is the correlate and equivalent of a power that was taken in from without. In our physical life—as also in our mental for that matter—we are absolutely dependent upon a wholesome environment for wholesome existence and by far the most essential and the most beneficent element which our environment affords is oxygen. It is hardly too important to note that nature does not confuse us this oxygen pure air has impeded it for use by combining about one part of it with about four parts of nitrogen (an inert compound). Oxygen is irritating and causes a form of oxygen poisoning which three atoms are considered to be condensed into two—as in experiments have been found so casual as to produce pulmonary inflammation. The safest and the only good and right form of oxygen inhalation for normal respiration is in combination as it exists in the atmosphere for this is the form to which during many ages the race has become adapted. It is possible that in other some creatures respired oxygen under a different combination than that which now obtains—but in those cases there were no human beings—only such creatures as ichthyosaurs and the like. No one can live most advantageously most wholesomely and with the best human results only in conformity with natural laws as so find them, and with due regard and regard to our environment.

There are however abnormal states of the human body in which oxygenation is deficient by reason of disease processes and in these diseases it is sought to administer oxygen in greater proportion than obtains in the ordinary atmosphere. We give it thus when oxygenation of the blood is interfered with as in dyspnea, emphysema, asthma, croup, whooping cough, asphyxia, tuberculosis and pneumonia and when the oxygen proportion in the blood is poor as in anæmia, diabetes and chlorosis (the green sickness). Here Hayes' method is a life-giving alternative. In such diseases as those just mentioned, oxygen may be administered in a quantity of air enriched to a considerable degree the nutritive functions increases the appetite slightly elevates the temperature stimulates the cardiac movements and augments the bodily weight the number of red blood cells is increased and their organic activity is stimulated although this action

is not constant, the effects may become so by the greater nutritive changes that are thus promoted.

Observe how the portion of Hayes' statement which I have italicized. In point of fact even in disease we do not as we could not, administer oxygen pure, moreover the nurse in administering holds the tube in such manner between the parted lips that some admixture of air takes place. This admixture is essential if the oxygen is to be respired at all. Nor have I, for any



Apparatus for registering work performed after inhaling oxygen.

## OXYGEN AND HUMAN EXERGY.

part been always sure of the efficacy of oxygen in such diseases as pneumonia. I have felt that pure atmospheric air—the colder the better its tonic property—has been as efficacious as oxygen in cases as I treat. Some physicians indeed go so far as to declare that the appearance of the oxygen tank denotes the beginning of the end for the unfortunate patient. Nor does the oxygen tank supplied for use in the sick room contain pure oxygen. One of the firms which supplies this gas for the sick room informs me that their purest oxygen is 90 per cent the remainder being nitrogen (that is half the cases physicians prefer and call for tanks containing oxygen compound which is made up of 60 per cent oxygen 30 per cent nitrous oxide (laughing gas) and 10 per cent nitrogen. I find it now very proper to present certain physics.

(Concluded on page 10)

## ELECTRICITY AND HUMAN EXERGY.

BY JOHN S. HAYES, A. B. M. D.

When fever was recognized as a natural process by which the body malacore to speed healing processes, the idea was suggested to speed the fever by the increase in the temperature of those parts of the body which are affected by disease, thus assisting the human organism in its struggle against the morbid process. In fact, an artificial heat equivalent to that of the natural heat of the body.

Familiar methods of treatment which have been in use from time immemorial. However, there was as far as possibility of really warming the body with heat, any other means being merely superficial resulting at most in a general heating of the whole body, the amount of which is known to be counteracted by abundant perspiration and emission of heat through evaporation.

The process described in the following paragraphs allows any part of the body to be heated to any temperature desired, producing locally fever temperatures of may 100 degrees to 104 degrees F. in order thus to increase blood circulation and to accelerate and intensify all the vital processes which are instrumental in defeating the disease. The local heating is effected by means of electric currents.

Though almost any galvanic action is attended by the production of heat the amount of heat generated by ordinary currents is insignificant. Any attempt to produce an appreciable heating effect by the application of electricity would further have been frustrated by the small amount of energy supplied to the human body in the form of ordinary currents while any important increase would have resulted in a violent stimulus of the nervous system and the electrolytic destruction of tissues stimulating 50 to 100 milliamperes thus constituted the extreme limit even in the case of small current densities whereas twenty to fifty times as much current would have been required for the production of an adequate heating effect.

High frequency currents as lately used in connection with wireless telegraphy afford a means of applying enormous amounts of current energy to the body without any risk of injury. In fact these currents perform vibrations of much rapidly so to exceed the limits of excitability of our nervous system. The alterations in current direction also are almost instantaneous.

The electrical vibrations generally used are too strongly damped to yield an appreciable effect. As in a communicating tube a liquid level raised in its position of rest will oscillate to ever-decreasing distances from its position of rest so electric waves starting from a spark gap become smaller and smaller and only after an interval about two hundred times as long as those vibrations will a new discharge take place and generate a new set of vibrations. In order to increase the effect of these vibrations the intervals should be reduced to about the same duration as the vibrations themselves. Their effect would then be entirely equivalent to those undamped waves which have recently been generated for the purposes of wireless telegraphy by means of highly sensitive apparatus.

A Berlin firm has recently constructed an outfit for generating high frequency vibrations thus making heat penetration amenable to medicine as a new therapeutic method.

The most important part of the outfit, viz. the apparatus used to generate the vibrations, consists of two substantial copper electrodes separated by a small distance between which the electrical discharge passes in an enclosed compartment. These discharges are produced by the high tension of an electrical generator connected with the electrodes and a vibratory electric circuit in parallel with it, and consisting of a condenser and a self-inductance coil arranged in series. The condenser is charged gradually as the apparatus is in series, and the discharge, which causes immediately, takes the shape of a steadily extinguished spark between the copper electrodes. In a similar manner, he can obtain high frequency vibrations, which are used for the purpose of heating the body, by means of a spark gap, instead of a high tension electrical generator, and a self-inductance coil arranged in series.

AN APPARATUS FOR PRODUCING LOCAL HEAT EXPERIMENTALLY.





The gyrostatic railway, first invented by Richard Boehr, a German, said to be an improvement on Brennan's car, is now in this country and will soon be given a public demonstration.

**Aviator Hamilton's Flight at St. Joseph, Mo.**

After learning how to fly at Santa Anita and making several excellent flights at Hammondsport, N. Y., the longest of which lasted 25 minutes, Charles K. Hamilton made some daring flights at St. Joseph, Mo., recently, as detailed in the correspondence. The machine he is using is the same one that Mr. Curtis used at Governor's Island, New York, when he attempted to fly there during the Hudson-Fulton celebration. It is fitted with a 30-horse-power cylinder water-cooled motor and the plane has a 10-foot spread. The machine weighs some 600 pounds.

The first flight at St. Joseph was made on Sunday, December 12th, over a circular course above the town surface of Lake Ontario. After a series of straightaway flights of a half kilometer against the wind and a kilometer with the wind in order to test the motor, the plane ascended in a snow storm so intense as to be blinding to the spectators. The velocity of the flight exceeded 30 miles per hour. A sinuous height of 40 feet was maintained throughout the one and a half times around the course—five miles—except when nearing the Casino, a summer opera house that juts out into the lake. This formed the "aeroline graveyard" of the course. On Tuesday, December 14th, a trial in the field inside the race track was made. The wind was blowing a gale, but the air was so calm that the velocity was made over ice, snow, and weeds of the infield. The machine got off the ground under these adverse conditions, but made a 100-foot flight. A new carburetor was fitted on the engine and a 4-bladed propeller substituted for the 3-bladed one. A bad spark plug gave trouble throughout the day. Later the machine was wheeled to the lake, and a start made from the ice. The aviator feared the demolition of the machine, and held close to the surface. A piercing northwest wind swept the ice, and during the two flights the wind varied 45 miles per hour was made with the wind while flying near the west shore. The timing was done by Mr. J. H. Hinn, and the distance was measured by your correspondence.

Wednesday was a day of failure, owing to motor trouble and unfavorable wind, until a late hour in the afternoon, when two trials were made over the field within the race track. The first flight was very short, and the second resulted in breaking two support braces of the horizontal rudder. The manager of the flight appointed by the Retail Merchants' Association insisted that the aviator fly over the field within the race track. This was an undulating surface covered with ice and snow, and only 1,500 feet long.

On Thursday, after the 3-bladed propeller had been replaced and the old carburetor reinstated, the machine was taken to the lake once more. A stiff north wind pale delayed flight until late in the afternoon. Two flights, or rather a series of four flights, were made. A circuit of the course was accomplished with numerous touches. Only three cylinders were firing part of the time, and at these intervals the machine touched the ice. The motor finally fell altogether, and the machine was stopped so suddenly by the application of the brake that it skidded completely around on the ice. This resulted in breaking the cement of the time and almost ripping the ice off. Later, when the second flight began, after covering 600 feet the motor started missing, and while passing through a snow drift two times around, locking one wheel, but notwithstanding this, the aviator made a very good 1,000 feet. The motor picked up in the meantime. Altogether, some remarkable facts were accomplished.

The flight on Sunday, December 19th, was discontinued owing to inability to see, the fast-falling snow having formed ice upon the aviator's goggles. This flight was made in private, and was not witnessed by many people.

On Sunday, December 19th, aviator Hamilton made his longest and best flight at St. Joseph. He circled above Lake Ontario for twelve minutes. The flight was witnessed by 400 interested spectators.

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**Correspondence.**

**WIND OF THE "NORTH DAKOTA."**

To the Editor of the *Scientific American*.—Following closely on the heels of the article in the *Scientific American* giving the new U. S. battleship "North Dakota," the proud title of "Fastest Dreadnought in the West" thus appears in the columns of a Canadian publication of the first class a statement to the effect that British "Dreadnaughts" are known to make an average of over 25 knots an hour, while the machine average made by the "North Dakota" is below 21 knots an hour.

If the exact figures relating to Great Britain's naval affairs are not very generally known, may it not be that she, perhaps more wisely, prefers not to publish to the world her naval secrets, while Americans, in justifiable pride over their achievements, are making ill-considered haste to claim the first place in the progress of naval science. I have a right to expect the perfection of accuracy in all matters treated of in the pages of the *Scientific American*. M. W. Bunsford, Quebec.

The "Dreadnaught" referred to as making over 25 knots are probably the cruiser-Dreadnaughts of the "Invincible" type. The "North Dakota" is of another class.—Ed.

**EFFECT OF BATTERY ROTATION ON STENOGRAPHIC GEAR.**  
To the Editor of the *Scientific American*.

I take much pleasure in reading your paper, and believe that you are especially interested in the article describing the monorail car. I have seen the groove principle, for balancing such a car, discussed numerous times, but there is one point regarding the groove which I have never seen mentioned in connection with this scheme.

It may not be of much importance, but it is nevertheless interesting, to note that a groove does not retain its balance relative to the earth, but relative to a fixed point in space. In other words, it would appear that on a "monorail" running north and south a car would be tilted to the west at the rate of fifteen degrees per hour, or one degree every four minutes, due to the rotation of the earth.

Of course, this is not fast enough to inconvenience anything, and perhaps Mr. Brown has provided a way to overcome this difficulty, but if not, it would be interesting to hear what others have to say in regard to this.

At any rate, a solution of this problem would be most interesting and of more practical benefit than the computation of our ancestors. For the monorail appears like a great improvement over the double-rail system for economical and rapid transportation. In fact, for light, high-speed passenger and express traffic, it would seem as if there is a great future in store for the monorail. T. H. BAKER, Lockwood, Ohio.

**SAFETY IN KEYS.**

To the Editor of the *Scientific American*.—I noticed in a recent issue of your valuable journal a suggestion for the better safeguarding of the lives of coal miners. As this suggestion was on the lines of ideas that I have for some time entertained, I would like to amend your suggestion by an addition. I believe that stations of refuge, provided with fire and gas-proof doors, should be established in various places in coal mines, and that these stations be provided with air tubes or conduits driven from the surface by wind-driven machinery. This would allow an air, food, and water supply to be maintained indefinitely, whether or not it should be necessary to seal the mine for the purpose of extinguishing a fire. Of course, it would be necessary to equip each of these stations with telephone and possibly lighting facilities, and of course, with facilities for forcing air into the mine.

I am assuming, without having made figure on the proposition, that sufficient air to supply a considerable number of men could be forced through a six-inch tube by sufficient pressure.

I believe it should be compulsory that mine operators should provide some stations which would prevent such appalling calamities as the recent one at Cherry, Ill., and which of some similar plan the cost would be so slight that it would be practicable to carry the same into effect. ALAN T. BROWN, Syracuse, N. Y.

**REMEMBER SAFETY FOR KEYS.**

To the Editor of the *Scientific American*.—As a further safety precaution in the operation of a mine, I would suggest the drilling of large holes many as may be necessary, from the surface to the main arteries of the workings, up through which, in case of disaster such as the recent one at Cherry, Ill., or in the event of a fire, the escape of the miners are now quite common in the old country, and large ones could be drilled if necessary. These holes could

be located at different advantageous points, and terminate in rooms or chambers cut out at the end of the sides of entries in such a location as to not interfere with their daily use. Holes made in the chains, four chains, 30 feet long, spaced equally around a circle the size of the hole, would be made in the chains, and a spider at their upper ends, five small circular platforms of strong wire mesh, spaced six feet apart, in side these chains, would make what could be termed a "safety cage" of the size that would haul five men or ten boys up at a trip.

Such a cage could be galvanized for durability, would be strong, and not weigh over 100 pounds. There could be handholds placed around the platform for the men to grasp to steady themselves. These cages would collapse when they would strike the bottom and could be quickly loaded, a man stepping on to each platform as it would be slowly raised, and when loaded, could be quickly hoisted to the surface. A perhaps better cage could be made of strong wire mesh, platforms and all that would have to be made to descend into a mine drilled deeper than the bottom of the mine, so that it could be loaded as it was raised.

The hoisting drum on the surface could be operated by steam, air, electric, or even horse power. The latter would have been invaluable at Cherry, Ill., as there would have been ample time for even a slow-operating apparatus to have saved all who got to it, but an electrically-driven hoister would be preferable to any other. Wires from the power house could be run to each hoister, and proper insulation would insure the apparatus to be in working order, if it should be needed.

Air could be blown down these holes for the supply of the men at the bottom, even if the cages were being used, the wire mesh construction of this allowing its passage. Water, food, oil for light, etc., could be sent down through the holes, and even doctors with medical cases.

The holes could be left open at all times for ventilation, but if such would interfere with the working of the fan currents and other ventilation systems of mines, the holes could be kept closed at the top by a proper battery of valves. If such were the case, the holes could be plugged at the bottom by means of an oil well pack or similar device, which, while perfectly watertight, can be quickly removed, leaving the hole clear.

I can see no reason why this plan of rescue in case of mine disasters would not be entirely practicable and effective, even in mines of size that are now in fact in depth. ROWAN ROWE, Indiana, Pa.

**The Current Supplement.**

An illustrated description of the large double-deck bridge which has been constructed over the River Wheel to accommodate both railroad and highroad traffic is published in the current *Supplement*, No. 1774. "A Log Book and How to Make It" is the title of an article which will undoubtedly be read with interest by amateur mechanics. Up to a few years ago water powers were usually bought for the sons. Nowadays they have no definite value that the matter of ascertaining their actual horse-power is of considerable importance. Mr. W. T. Hylan explains how this calculation is made. Robert M. Strong's excellent comparison of the turbine and impulse engines is well known. The comet families of Saturn, Uranus and Neptune are discussed by H. C. Wilson. L. H. Beckeland describes the use of his newly invented substance, "baluster" for electrical and chemical purposes. The article on the scope has entered a new field. It now shows us moving pictures of a world which is invisible to the naked eye and revealed only by the ultra microscope, all of which is explained in the current *Supplement*. James Scott writes on microscopic free fungi. The efficiency of modern aeroplanes is discussed by G. Garner on the basis of the results obtained at Rheims.

**A Correction.**

In an article on page 465 of the *Scientific American* of December 18th, 1909, it is stated that by the introduction of a turbine between the low-pressure cylinders and the condenser of the cross-compound reciprocating engines in the 59th Street power station an additional 8,000 horse-power was secured. The item should have read an additional 8,000 kilowatts. The maximum economical output of these engines is now 8,000 kilowatts developed in the reciprocating element and an additional 8,000 kilowatts in the turbine making a total of 16,000 kilowatts or say about 22,000 horse-power for the whole engine.

The Municipal Art Commission of New York has just published its book, "Illustrations of the Buildings of the City of New York." It is a book of 240 pages, and contains more than 100 illustrations reproducing the works of art scattered around the city.

## THE GREAT ST. BERNARD HOSPICE

BY HENRY J. HARRISON.

The St. Bernard Hospice stands some 8150 feet above the level of the sea, on a mountain peak which forms one of the principal highways between Switzerland and Italy. Over 20,000 persons cross this road every year, and so nearly inevitable of this number is the journey in winter the monks and dogs of the hospice, whose mission it is to aid those few who may be said to be reasonably for many lives very near.

The hospice is an ancient building, the oldest part of it is unique. It was founded as far back as 1082 by Bernard de Menthon for the benefit of pilgrims journeying to Rome. For many years after it was first erected it was subjected to frequent attacks by bands of mountain robbers. Often the brave monks were forced to barricade themselves in their stronghold, and the stress of winter drove them to a desperate fight. Once the monks were destroyed by fire. The building was destroyed when it took fire during a storm over the Alps in Italy in the spring of 1800. The force numbered 10,000 men and for miles they laid in wait. It was a very difficult way to the step; it is a pass often called the "devil's path" because of the danger. The monks were forced to flee into the mountains. The monks were now sheltered in a new hospice.

When first seen the monastery from an elevated point of view is disappointing. It consists of a plain block of grey buildings with massive walls built to resist the wind and the weight of snow. In midwinter the snow around the buildings is seven to ten feet deep and sometimes forms drifts against the edifice that reach right up to the roof. If the exterior is disappointing the same cannot be said of the interior. On the side reserved for the better class of travelers there is a new dining room containing a handsome piano presented to the monks by King Edward while the bedrooms with their soft cushions and feathered beds are of a more comfortable nature. Anyone crossing the pass is at perfect liberty to enter the hospice and accept its hospitality. No traveler is ever turned away. Two good meals are served every day, namely at 12 noon and at 6 P. M. At these meals representatives of almost every nation on earth may be seen. Italians naturally predominate. Next come Swiss, then Russians, Germans, French, Turks, Spaniards, English, and perhaps two or three American travelers. The food is plain but good and plentiful and the beverage served is the famous red wine of Piedmont. After meals travelers spend their time much as they wish in easy conversation with one another in games in reading the books in the library or in inspecting the curios in the museum.

Not so long ago the hospice was put into telephonic communication with the outside world with the result that the work of the monks has been lightened and that the number of lives lost has been reduced to a minimum. The monastery is connected by telephone

that at any given moment the monks know the exact number of people on the pass and their approximate whereabouts.

Only a few weeks ago a message was received on the telephone that three men, two women, and one child had started up the path. The weather was unsettled at the time, and two hours later a blinding snowstorm came on. At once two of the brothers accompanied by two dogs hastened down the pass to look for the travelers and guide them to the hospice. They knew about where the travelers should be and were surprised that the dogs failed to seek them. After nearly two hours of fruitless search a dog arrived from the monastery. He carried a message to the effect that after they had lost, a telephone message had been received saying that the travelers had returned to the inn.

When speaking about the dogs M. Bourgeois, the present provost and his principal assistant Father Jules Darbellay to whom I am indebted for the information contained in this article assured me that the wonderful stories that have been told about the sagacity of the dogs are not exaggerated. Near the hospice is a monument to Barry. This dog saved forty lives in a period of ten years and was suddenly killed.

In the kennels at the hospice there are at the present time fifteen trained dogs and an equal number of bitches and young puppies. They were all born at the monastery. Their training is very simple. During the summer months when the monks are not called upon to save lives, they are used to train the young dogs.

out in the valleys or hollows where there is always snow. One man then lies down in the snow or buries himself in it. A dog is sent to look for him. He is taught to bark when he has found the man and also to rouse him up from sleep by licking his face. When the man wakes up and stands on his feet the dog leads him to the hospice running on in front to show him the way.

According to the traditions of the monastery the St. Bernard is a cross between a Danish Bull bitch and a mastiff, a native hill dog though at what time the cross was effected it is impossible to say. After the breed was once established it was kept pure until 1813 when owing to the severity of the winter the monks were obliged to breed contrary to their usual custom to send out the broad bitches as well as the dogs with the result that all the females succumbed to the cold and the monks found themselves without the means of continuing the pure breed. In this extremely a cross with the Newfoundland was tried but it did not succeed owing to the excessive coat of the Newfoundland, which hampered the dogs in the snow however by breeding back to their own short-coated dogs, the



Looking for bodies in the snow after an avalanche.

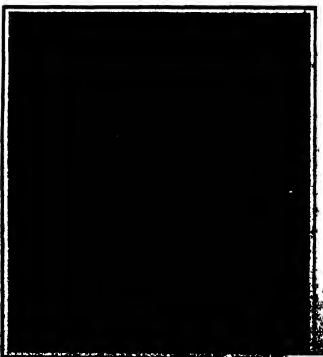


St. Bernard dog with sledge of wine.



The interior of the chapel.

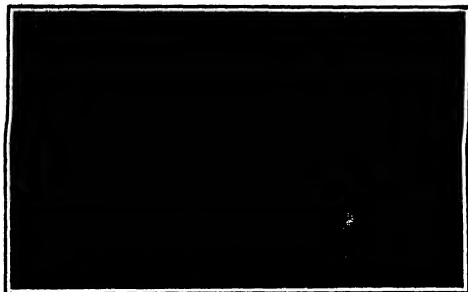
with a small inn on the Swiss side and with St. Remond on the Italian side. At both these stations arrangements are made by which the monastery is warned of the number of persons that commence the ascent from these two places. Through these arrangements the monks know exactly how many travelers are making the ascent from either side of the mountain. It is really impossible for anyone to attempt to make the ascent without the monastery being warned. Often a party of travelers set out for the hospice in fine weather. A few hours later a sudden storm comes on, and the monks knowing at what time the ascent was begun, know approximately what spot the travelers should have reached. At the hospice a light is kept burning, the telephone is kept in operation, and the monks of the hospice that people the mountain, so



St. Bernard dog with sledge of wine.

monks obtained the desired abatement of cost, though occasionally specimens were born with the rough coats. These rough-coated and male were sold or given away to the inhabitants of the surrounding valleys, who continued to breed them so that St. Bernard dogs soon became general in Switzerland. The full grown specimens in the hospice at the hospice are magnificent creatures of their kind. They stand thirty inches high at the shoulder and weigh about one hundred and fifty pounds. They are exceedingly strong and can carry a man for a considerable distance. By nature they are gentle enough in the puppy season when the mothers are apt to resent situations.

This breed of faithful creatures commences their work in earnest at the end of September and continue looking for lost travelers right on to the middle of June which period represents the winter season on the pass. In the depth of winter not a vestige of a path is visible. The snow drifts too present formidable obstacles. Besides there is the danger of avalanches. Fogs are frequent and in stormy weather the wind rises to a hurricane blowing the snow into one's eyes and making it impossible to see any distance ahead.



Entrance to the St. Bernard hospice

Indeed the monks will not hesitate to tell you that during the winter months it is impossible for an inexperienced traveler to venture upon the mountain and safely negotiate the pass without receiving help.

Considering the perils of the road one may well ask why people venture upon it during the winter. The fact is the greater majority are poor workmen going or returning from their labors on the other side of the Alps. In February and March as many as a hundred will make their way across the pass in a single day. It is then that the monks are busy. They think nothing of remaining out in the snow seeking the lost, for twenty-four hours at a time. Father Darbellay told me that he has known the dogs to remain out in the snow for two days eating very little and not taking any rest or sleep.

Before the advent of the telephone the dogs carried a sash of wine tied to their collars and food strapped to a saddle on their backs. Now they carry only the wine because it has been found that the weight hinders their progress through the snow. So well are they trained, that they are often dispatched by themselves down the pass to escort travelers up the treacherous path to the hospice. They always discover them and guide them to the desired haven. In the same way the monks will allow the dogs to accompany the travelers on their journey down the mountain if the weather is at all bad and the road difficult to trace. If a traveler is found in an exhausted condition he is conveyed to the monastery on an improvised stretcher. Should it prove that help has arrived too late the body is left strapped to the board and placed in an upright position in the mortuary chapel by far the most gruesome place in the whole monastery. Through the ivy hidden bars of the windows one can gaze at the dead within. The keen air sweeping from end to end preserves these poor relics of humanity for years in a semi-natural condition, and unless they are identified there they rot. At the present time there are some twenty bodies in the mortuary, one of which is said to have been there for years.

The management of the present St. Bernard Hospice is under the control and safety of a small committee of monks and laymen. They are all sworn to the duty of saving human life, and are not allowed to accept any payment for their services. The hospice is situated in the heart of the Alps, in the canton of Valais, Switzerland, and is one of the most famous and interesting places in the world.



Great St. Bernard hospice in winter. Such snowdrifts are not extraordinary in the Alps.

There are over one hundred beds for travelers and they are never empty during the winter months. Of a hundred beds are called upon to find shelter for as many as three hundred or four hundred persons at one time. No one is asked to pay for his accommodation. Very few dogs are in the hospice but the beautiful chapel (the amount that would have been paid for similar accommodation at an ordinary hotel) there the duty must depend to a very large extent on other means of support. Unfortunately too the expenses are very heavy for almost all supplies have to come from Aosta and the neighboring villages. The monks have a deep cellar where they keep their wine until the fresh meat is procured from the valleys in the summer but for the winter the priests lay up a store of salted meat. They also keep a number of cows in the summer to supply them with milk and cheese but only a few cows remain in the winter. Wood for firing is one of the most important necessities. Not a stick grows within seven miles and all the fuel has to be brought from a forest on the back of horses. For this purpose alone about thirty horses are employed daily during the brief summer.

The following notes concerning the storage of California or crude oil in concrete reservoirs were recently given in Concrete. A 1,000,000 barrel reservoir lined with concrete has recently been completed at Port Richmond, Cal. and one of 800,000 barrel capacity is under construction near Bakersfield. The practice is to excavate the earth which is moist, is a sandy loam porous and very dry to about one-third the depth of the proposed reservoir. With the material removed a levee is built round the excavation having side slopes of



Training a dog with dynamite to discover a lost traveler

1 1/4 on both faces. The bottom and sides are then covered with about 4 inches of concrete often reinforced with expanded metal or some equivalent. Small cracks that occur at the junction of the sides and bottom and along the line between the cut and the embankment soon become filled with sediment and are believed to permit the leakage of very little oil.

A number of such structures in Southern California have recently been examined and no signs of depreciation in the quality of the concrete were found even in those which had been in use for a considerable period.



Young dogs in the snow. They appear to be training.

## THE HEAVENS IN JANUARY

BY HENRY HOWARD HOLMES, Ph.D.



As we watch the brighter stars on a clear winter's night we may well be impressed with the notable differences in color among them. What may strike us first is that a very bright star like Sirius when low on the horizon visibly changes color from moment to moment. This is like its twinkling, purely an effect of our atmosphere whose refraction changing slightly as masses of air of different density are carried across our line of sight by the wind causes now one color now another to be strengthened for an instant in its spectrum while others may be for a moment almost absent.

But when the stars have risen high and the night is clear and calm so that these disturbances are no longer perceptible the difference of color persists. Sirius is brilliantly white and so are most of the stars of Orion. Capella (whose light much resembles that of our sun) is clearly yellow. Aldebaran is orange red and Betelgeuse redder still. The fainter stars whose light is too weak to show much color to the naked eye when at arm's length it takes open show similar differences in hue.

The cause of these phenomena so easily observable must be sought in the stars themselves. Recent physical research has made it almost certain that we may find it in their own nature.

If we take a solid body such as the carbon filament of an incandescent lamp and heat it up gradually to higher and higher temperatures which in this case we may easily do by increasing the electric current—we will observe that when it first becomes visible its light is of a dull red. As the current is increased the light becomes very much brighter and yellow in shade of red.

If finally we apply a very high voltage and put through the lamp a heavy current which it can stand only a short time without breaking down it will give for the moment an intense white light far whiter as well as far brighter than under ordinary conditions.

All in inanimate solids (or liquids) behave in the same way and careful work both in the laboratory and on theoretical lines has led to a formula (too complicated to be given here) which enables us to tell just how much light of any given color (or wave length) will be given off per square inch of surface at a given temperature. We cannot of course experiment with temperatures as high as those that prevail upon the sun but there are good reasons to suppose that the formula fits the facts very closely even in this case.

We may illustrate the results by an example. Consider a star of the same temperature as the sun and suppose that we observe it (1) through deep red glass which transmits only the extreme red rays, (2) through a yellow glass transmitting only the yellow and green light, (3) by photography when the violet rays are also effective. Now suppose its temperature suddenly doubled. Our formula tells us that through the red glass it will look seven times as bright as before, through the yellow glass more than ten times and by photography some twenty times as bright.

If on the other hand the temperature was reduced to half its initial value its light would fall off much more rapidly, the ratio of 1/40 the yellow to 1/100 and the blue to but 1/400 of its original amount.

Suppose now that we had three stars close together in the sky whose surfaces were at the three temperatures just discussed. Which of them will look brightest to us will depend on how big they are and how far away. Let us suppose that, viewed through the

yellow glass, they all seem equal in brightness, in which case the hottest one must of course be much smaller or much more remote than the coldest.

From the numbers just given we can deduce that, when seen through the red glass the hottest star will seem but 70 per cent as bright as the one which resembles the sun and the coldest star twice as bright as this standard of comparison. On the photograph the disparity will be even more marked. The hot star will appear twice as bright and the cold star only one-quarter as bright as the one of the solar type.

We have thus a means of determining their temperatures even though we do not know how far off they are nor what is their actual brightness by comparing their relative brightness in light of different colors.

An extensive series of observations of this sort have recently been made at Potsdam by Scheffler and Wilsing using apparatus of high precision and great care to avoid all sources of error and employing five different colors of light so that the comparison of the values obtained from them might serve as a check not only upon the accuracy of the observations but of the formula used in calculation.

The results are highly satisfactory and form an important contribution to our knowledge of the stars. As is obviously to be expected from what has been

seen in the southeast. Right up, almost overhead, is Rigel, marked by the group of the Pleiades and the red Aldebaran. Below is the splendid Orion, and beyond him Castor Major with the innumerable stars. Most of the south is taken up by the great color star Capella. Below are the Twins, and on the right Procyon. The faint star cluster Praesepe marks the place of Cancer and on the northern are Arcturus and Leo partly risen.

The constellations in the southwest are much less prominent. Arcturus which is high up at once is recognized by the peculiar small triangle formed by its three principal stars. Above it are those of the fish, the double. Our faintest shows how ridiculously little resemblance there is between the figure of the Man and the stars which bear his name.

Briarrose, Octus and Ploce are those of them very bright but the planets Mars and Saturn which are close together in the east are conspicuous. The very brilliant object in the southwest early in the evening is the planet Venus.

Pegasus and Andromeda are well seen in the west. Perseus is right overhead and Cassiopeia, Cepheus and Cygnus occupy the Milky Way as far as the northwestern horizon. Ursa Major and Draco are under the pole and Ursa Minor is coming up in the northeast.

## THE PLANETS

Mercury is evening star until the 16th when he passes between us and the sun and becomes a morning star. He is well visible during the first half of the month especially about the 10th when he rises about 8 P. M. By the end of the month he has come nearly into line between us and the sun and is less prominent setting about 7 P. M. but is still far brighter than anything else in sight.

Mars is in Ploce at the beginning of the month close to Saturn and gradually moves outward into Arcturus. He is in quadrature with the sun on the 17th and is on the meridian at 4 P. M. Viewed telescopically he shows a marked gibbous phase—like the moon three days from full.

Jupiter is in Virgo and rises about midnight being in quadrature with the sun on the opposite side from Mars on the 4th. Saturn is almost opposite him in the sky in Ploce and is visible in the evening almost till midnight.

Uranus is in conjunction with the sun on the 11th and is invisible throughout the month. Neptune is in opposition on the 9th and is visible all night long. He is then in S. A. 7 h 17 m 28 s declination 21 deg 33 min N and is moving 71 s to the west and 14 sec. northward daily. His motion alone serves to distinguish him from the stars unless one has a telescope powerful enough to show his disk.

## THE MOON

Last quarter occurs at 8 A. M. on the 24th new moon at 7 A. M. on the 11th first quarter at 5 A. M. on the 18th and full moon at 7 A. M. on the 25th. The moon is nearest us on the 17th, and farthest off on the 4th and 21st.

She is in conjunction with Jupiter on the 15th Uranus on the 11th Mercury on the afternoon of the 12th, Venus on the 12th Saturn on the 17th Mars on the 17th and Jupiter once more on the 26th. Princeton University Observatory.

The memory of the late Capt. Charles W. Eldridge, who was Admiral Dewey's flag officer on board the cruiser Olympia at the battle of Manila Bay in 1898, has been honored by a brown marbled cabinet which has been placed on the wall of the Astrophysical Observatory at Mount Wilson, N. J. The funds were procured by popular subscription.

At 11 o'clock Dec 1  
At 11 1/2 o'clock Dec 15  
At 12 o'clock Dec 25

At 1 1/2 o'clock December 25

## NIGHT SKY: DECEMBER AND JANUARY

said the white stars are the hottest. The average temperature of those observed comes out about 11,500 deg. C. just about double that of the sun.

The average temperature which they calculate for a number of stars whose spectra resemble the sun is 5,000 deg.—a little higher than that of the sun itself. That of the stars which resemble Arcturus in spectrum is 4,200 deg. and that of the reddest stars like Betelgeuse about 3,000 deg.—lower than that of the carbons in the electric arc. (The arc light of course looks far bluer than most stars but this is because much of its light comes from hot carbon vapor which like the mercury vapor in the new familiar lamps gives off strongly colored light of its own in this case violet.)

A rather faint telescope comet was discovered by Mr. Daniel at Princeton on the night of December 8th. It was then about fifty million miles from us and very close to perihelion. It is now slowly receding from earth and sun but will remain telescopically visible until the end of January or later.

Baily's comet though well placed in the evening sky in Ploce not far from Mars and Saturn will probably still be much too faint to see without a telescope.

## THE PLANETS

The finest region in the starry sky is now well

# THE RIGNOUX-FOURNIER SYSTEM OF TELEVISION BY SILENT MIRROR

In the present state of science, the solution of the problem of vision at a distance by means of electrical transmission appears to be only a question of money. Researches in this field are directed toward the utilization of a peculiar property of the element selenium, which conducts electricity more or less readily in proportion to the intensity of the light which shines on it. Upon this property is based the system of electrical transmission of photographs which was invented by Prof. Rignoux, of Munich, and which has for several months been in regular operation in the laboratory of the Daily Mirror in London and L. Illustration in Paris. The general arrangement of Kern's apparatus has already been described in the *Renouveau* August 1907.

The photograph to be transmitted is a negative film, is wrapped round a cylinder which is caused to rotate before a source of light so arranged that only a very small area of the photograph is illuminated at a time. The pencil of light after traversing the film falls upon a cell of selenium forming part of an electrical circuit which extends to the receiving station. Owing to the property of selenium mentioned above the current which flows through this selenium cell at any instant is proportional to the instantaneous strength of the light at that instant. At the receiving station this minute electric current is employed to uncover to an extent proportional to the instantaneous strength of the current a lens which conveys a beam of light upon a photographic film carried by a cylinder which rotates in synchronism with the cylinder at the transmitting station. Hence the part of the film on which the beam falls is illuminated and consequently blackened to a degree proportional to the transparency of the corresponding part of the original film. In short a negative at one station produces a positive picture at the other by the successive transmission of many small parts.

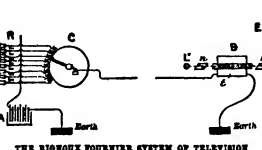
Instead of prolonging the operation in this manner let us suppose that it is all done at once. Let us project the image upon a sheet of selenium divided into a very large number of small cells each of which is connected with the receiving station by a separate wire. It is evident that in this way the entire picture could be transmitted at once and consequently that electrical vision at a distance could be realized. But in order to accomplish this thousands of wires each connected with appropriate apparatus, would be required and the expense incurred would probably be out of all proportion to the value of the results obtained.

This theoretical scheme has not formed the basis of any practical experiments which have yet been brought to public notice. It was announced a few months ago that E. Ruhmer, the well-known electrician of Berlin had solved the problem and that his apparatus costed an enormous sum to construct would be the principal attraction at the Exposition at Brussels in 1910. No details of the apparatus however have been published. We know that it employs selenium but we do not know whether it uses one wire or many wires.

In the state of the problem it seems particularly interesting to note the solution proposed by two French inventors, M. Rignoux and Prof. Fournier, some of whose experiments the writer has had the good fortune to witness.

Rignoux and Fournier have invented two types of apparatus. The first is designed merely for communication and necessitates the employment of many wires. It may be described briefly as follows. At the transmitting station an image (a large letter of the alphabet for example) is projected upon a frame and its image is projected by a lens upon a frame containing a number of selenium cells each of which is connected with the receiving station by a separate wire. Each cell and its wire, transmit a current proportional to the brightness of the part of the image projected on that cell and the corresponding part of the object. At the receiving station these simultaneous currents of unequal intensity traverse an equal number of little cells, and thereby uncover the same number of little mirrors to an extent proportional to the strength of the various currents. Beams of light reflected by these mirrors are projected on a screen, side by side, forming patches of various degrees of brightness, proportional to that of the corresponding parts of the object. With a very large number of selenium cells, wires, and mirrors it is possible to transmit a picture with fine detail and many gradations of tone. The experimental demonstration, which is actually made in summary and

crude, but quite convincing. The multiplicity of wires is a serious defect, which the inventors believe they have found means of remedying in their second apparatus which is in course of construction and is illustrated by the accompanying diagram. At the transmitting station the rays of the luminous source *L* are reflected by the mirror *M* upon the object *O* the image of which is projected by the lens *N* upon the frame of selenium cells *P*. (The diagram shows a frame of eight cells and an object divided into eight equal squares. Two of the squares are white and their images illuminate the two corresponding selenium cells.) The very weak currents transmitted by the selenium cells are sent into the relay *R* where they set into motion much stronger currents, the intensities of



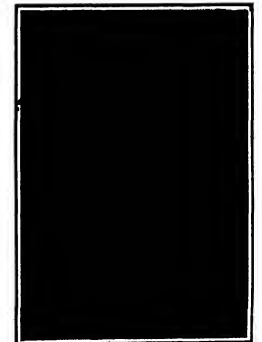
THE RIGNOUX-FOURNIER SYSTEM OF TELEVISION

which are proportional to those of the selenium cell currents to the illumination of the respective cells and to the brightness of the corresponding parts of the object.

The problem is to transmit all of these currents through a single wire without confusion and to receive them and cause them to act separately and simultaneously at the receiving station. For this purpose Rignoux and Fournier have devised the following arrangement. The currents are conveyed to the contact pieces of the collector *C* from which they are taken successively by a rapidly rotating wheel which is connected with the receiving station by a single wire.

Let us for the moment disregard the question of speed of transmission and consider the means by which these successive currents are received.

At the receiving station the light of a source *L* polarized by its passage through the Nicol prism *N* traverses the table *T* which is filled with carbon dust



David Starr Jordan  
The New President of the American Association for the Advancement of Science

phide, and then falls upon a second Nicol prism *S*, which is crossed with regard to the first prism. The table is surrounded by a coil of wire *B* which is connected with the wire coming from the transmitting station. Hence the currents which traverse the selenium cells for the transmitter flow successively through this coil and produce an electromagnetic rotation of the plane of polarization of the light which is passing through the carbon dustpile to a degree proportional to the illumination of the particular selenium cell which is immediately connected with the wire causing corresponding fluctuations in the intensity of the light which emerges from the second Nicol prism *S*. This beam of light of varying intensity falls upon the cylinder *D* which rotates in

synchronism with the collector *C* of the transmitting station, and which carries a number of mirrors *M*, equal to the number of selenium cells. Hence each mirror reflects a quantity of light proportional to the illumination of the particular selenium cell and the brightness of the corresponding part of the object. The mirrors are so arranged that the light reflected by each falls on a different part of the screen *R* on which is thus produced a mosaic picture formed of patches of various degrees of brightness of the object exposed at the transmitting station.

It is possible to transmit and make visible in this manner, upon a single wire, an image produced by several thousands of selenium cells. Yet there is no difficulty in constructing a frame of 10,000 or more selenium cells each connected by a separate wire with the collector which comprises an equal large number of contacts. Now if we return to the second part of the picture, we shall find that the frequency of alternation of an alternating current often exceeds 100,000 cycles per second in the case of selenium, so that 10,000 currents can be collected and transmitted successively over a single wire in a small fraction of a second. By the employment of 10,000 mirrors at the receiving station an image composed of 10,000 patches of light can be projected within the same fraction of a second. The different parts of the picture will all be projected successively but they will appear to be simultaneous owing to the persistence of impressions on the retina of the eye. If the projection of the entire picture is accomplished within 1/40 second and the apparatus can be so constructed that this process will be repeated indefinitely giving the appearance of a permanent picture instead of a fleeting glimpse.

Hitherto we have supposed the number of mirrors to be equal to the number of selenium cells. It may be found possible, however, to diminish the number of mirrors and to operate with mirrors successively by the currents from several cells. This modification would doubtless involve complications and difficulties in construction which we need not discuss. For the present it suffices to show that the transmission of a picture at a distance by means of a single wire connecting the two stations has been solved by MM. Rignoux and Fournier. In the practical realization of the device the inventors will have to contend with the phenomena of self-induction interference and the electric inertia of selenium but these are familiar technical difficulties which will sooner or later be surmounted.

## DAVID STARR JORDAN

HE WAS BORN IN 1857

The distinction of studying natural history under Louis Agassiz in the laboratories in Cambridge is one to be highly appreciated and of the many eminent naturalists who were so fortunate as to receive their first inspiration under the guidance of that renowned master many if not most have traced their activities. Of the earlier students Brooks, Huxley and Packard have joined the silent majority. Alexander S. Peckham, Brewster and Verrill are fortunately still with us in the happy possession of an assured fame. At the close of the elder Agassiz's career he established a summer school on Foxholm Island, New Hampshire, where a number of us have achieved special distinction. Rich Barbour, the Assistant Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution who is now directing the activities of a score or more of vigorous men in the work of the National Museum and David Starr Jordan who presides over the destinies of the great Stanford University in California. Prof. Jordan has been a kind of presiding over the meeting of the American Association to hold the week in Boston and of him is the following brief sketch.

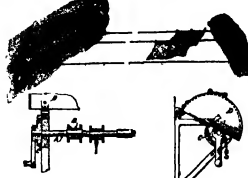
David Starr Jordan was born in Owensville New York on January 18th, 1857. He grew up on his father's farm in Wyoming County receiving his early education in schools in the vicinity of his home. In 1876 he entered Cornell and there devoted himself to scientific studies, developing a special interest in the history of fishes. He was elected to the position of assistant in which branch he was made instructor in his junior year and continued to hold that place until he was graduated with the degree of M. A. in 1879.

He was elected to the chair of natural history in Lombard University in 1879 a place which he held for a year and then accepted the principality of the Appleton (Wis.) Collegiate Institute. He then entered the Andrews School on Pelee Island as a student and returned there on a lecture tour during the summer of 1879. It was there that he came under the influence of the elder Agassiz and began his studies (Continued on page 16)



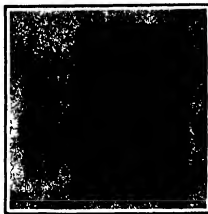
## CLOTHES-LINE HANGER.

The clothes-line hanger which is illustrated in the accompanying engraving is adapted to support a num-



## CLOTHES-LINE HANGER.

ber of clothes lines at the same time, and yet permits of taking up the slack of the lines individually or altogether where desired. The lines are attached at one end to a fixed support, while the other ends are connected to separate reels, all of which are mounted on a single shaft that may be wound up to stretch the lines taut. The shaft, which is indicated at A, is provided at intervals with square sections adapted to fit the square boxes of the reels B. The shaft is mounted in suitable brackets attached to a wall, and at each end is provided with a ratchet and a crank, so that it may be wound up to tighten the lines. Each line is provided with a hook at one end adapted to engage a

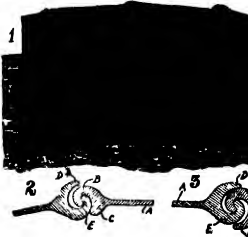


## A NOVEL METHOD OF COOPERING CAKE.

corresponding eye in the bar B, which is made fast to an opposite wall or other support. Whenever it is desired to take in one of the lines, or to tighten it or loosen it with respect to the others, the reel on which it is wound is moved axially until it clears the squared section of the shaft A, and is then free to be turned in either direction. Whenever desired, the bar B may be released from its support and the lines wound up. A cover plate D may then be dropped over the reels to protect them from the weather. A patent on this clothes-line hanger has been obtained by Mr. George T. Van Ripper, 161 South Ocean Avenue, Freeport, N. Y.

## ROLLED STEEL PILING.

One of the defects of sheet steel piling as heretofore constructed is that the interlocking edges which con-



## ROLLED STEEL PILING.

nect one pile with another are apt to spread upon when the piles are under strain. Patented herewith is a new form of sheet piling with strong definite joints so constructed as to cooperate with each other at the various positions which the piles may assume with relation to each other. Fig. 1 shows a set of piles driven in a curved row. Details of the interlocking parts are given in the sectional views, which show two different forms of piles. Each pile consists of a web A, furnished with a pair of flanges formed to interlock with the flanges of the next adjacent pile. In the construction shown in Fig. 1, the right and left-hand ends of the pile differ in design. The left-hand end has a wide tapering flange B, that is bent in the form of a hook, and a short, slightly curved flange C. The right end of the pile is somewhat similar in form, the flange B being curved to approximately the same form as flange B, but the flange D is considerably longer than the flange C. Fig. 2 shows a preferred construction. The interlocking parts are of the same design, except that they are made in right and left-hand forms. With either design the interlocking flanges will rigidly be retained under pulling strains at whatever position the parts may assume. The piles are of simple construction, and may readily be rolled in rolls of proper design. The inventor of this piling is Mr. William Neilson, of 1579 Montezuma Street, Pittsburgh, Pa.

## GAS-MAIN STOPPER.

A novel form of gas-main stopper is illustrated in the accompanying engraving. It consists of a flexible diaphragm mounted on a collapsible spring frame, which may be expanded in the gas main by exerting pressure at two diametrically opposite points. The diaphragm is indicated at A in the illustration, and when in collapsed condition is elliptical or oval in form. The diaphragm attached to the frame is shown at B. Connecting opposite extremities of the oval shaped spring frame A are a pair of telescoping members C, to which the operating handles D and E are attached. It will be evident that when the handle E is drawn upward and handle D pressed downward, the member C will telescope, drawing the frame A into circular form. In order to provide for operating both of the handle bars simultaneously, a crosshead F is fitted to the outer end of the bar D, and is provided with an aperture through which a threaded bar G is adapted to pass. The bar G terminates in a hook, which engages a link secured to the bar E, and a thumb nut threaded on the bar G and bearing against the crosshead F serves to draw the bar E outward, and at the same time to press the bar D inward, so as to press the stopper into the circular form. In use the stopper is introduced into the gas main through an opening, and inclined with its lower end extending toward the end from which the gas is flowing. The operating bars project through the opening, and when the thumb nut is tightened the frame is brought to a nearly vertical position, as indicated in the drawing, thus tying crosswise of the main and effectually stopping the flow of gas. The inventor of this improved gas-main stopper is Mr. Patrick Goodman of 257 East 123rd Street, New York City.

## A NOVEL METHOD OF COOPERING CAKE.

It is customary to build oaks with tapering sides, so that the hoops which bind the staves together may be jammed tightly in place. This makes it necessary to shape the staves, which entails considerable waste of material and much trouble in assembling and lending them into position. Another disadvantage is that the tapering or bulging oak requires more room for storage than if made truly cylindrical. A novel method of overcoming these difficulties has recently been suggested. The accompanying engraving illustrates this method. Between the staves and the hoops rings are placed, which are tapered as indicated in the sectional view, Fig. 1. When the rings are driven down they act as wedges to jam the hoops tightly, so that the ring may contract in diameter as it is wedged into place. It is made of wire or a strip of metal that is crinkled or bent into a zigzag form. This lightens the construction, and provides a better grip on the hoops and staves. In many trades small saws and nails of modern size for liquids are required, but their high price and the cost of machinery for making them is prohibitive for many purposes. The oaks here described are especially suited to meet the requirements of such trades, because after the staves and heads are prepared they can be finished inside and out (including outside the grooves) in an ordinary lathe, producing an inexpensive oak of attractive and valued appearance. The inventor of this novel construction is Mr. William Hecker of Nelson, New Zealand.

## A NEW METHOD OF DRAWING THE AREA OF SURFACES.

A very unique method of finding the area of surfaces with irregular boundaries is patented in the accompanying engraving. It consists of first about plates that is magnetized, and held between a permanent magnet, and a number of soft iron balls. The area of the plate depends upon the dimensions of the area to be measured. The drawing in which the area is outlined is placed over the plate, and to protect the drawing a thin piece of paper is placed over it. The area out-



## GAS-MAIN STOPPER.

lined is then filled with the iron balls, which are fast on the under side to prevent them from rolling. The magnetized plate converts the balls into temporary magnets, causing them to cling to the plate and to each other. After the area of the drawing is filled, the balls are taken out and placed in a measuring frame, as indicated in the engraving, and the number of square inches occupied by the balls is ascertained. Tables are furnished which permit of reducing the square inches thus found to the scale of the drawing, thus giving the area sought without any calculation. It will be observed that the side members of the maga-

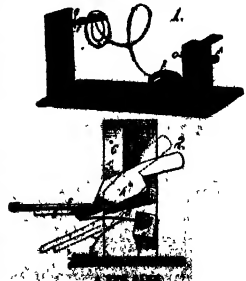


## AREA-FINDING APPARATUS.

ving frame are calibrated, and the sliding cross-bar is provided with vernier scales, so that the area occupied by the balls may be obtained with exactitude. The ease with which any given area can be set on first trial should make this apparatus valuable to engineers and surveyors. The apparatus is adaptable to irregular as well as regular surfaces. The inventor of the area finder is Mr. Alfred C. Freeman of Norfolk, Va.

## A NEW GAME.

Pictured in the accompanying engraving is a novel game apparatus, which is adapted to afford considerable recreation, as it calls for a certain amount of skill. (Continued on page 15.)

















# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

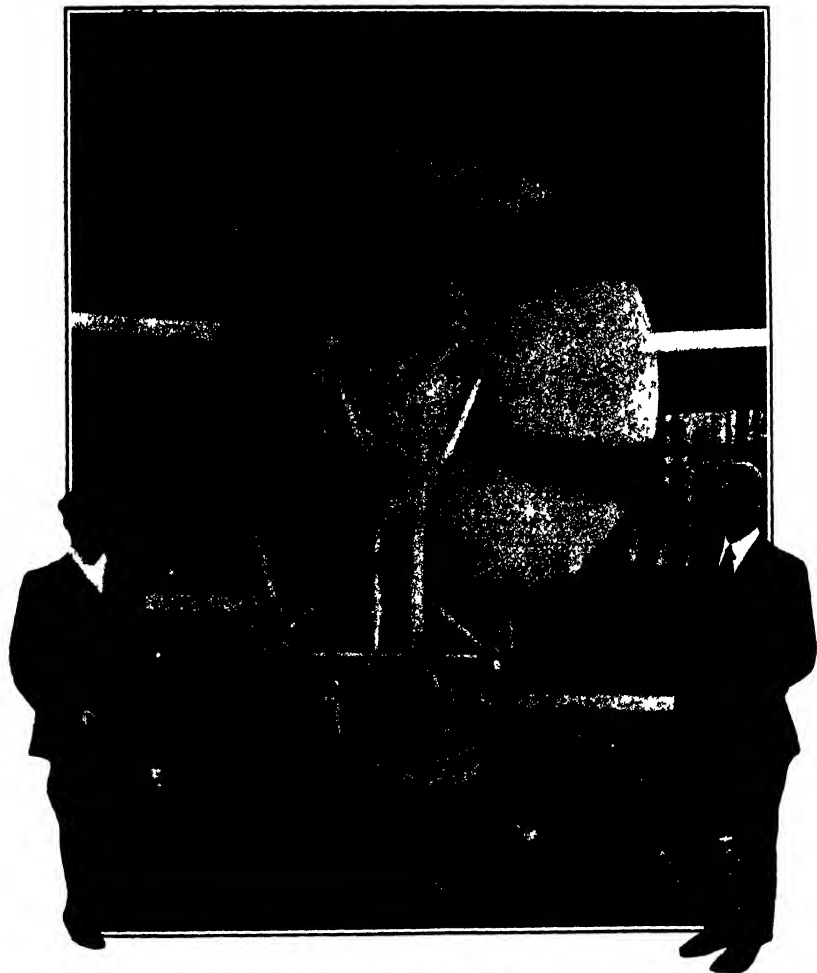
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A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS

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This is the 636-shot propeller of the Antares monoplane revolving at about 1100 revolutions per minute and generating a veritable hurricane. The dark bands are shadows cast on the swiftly revolving blade. Persistence of retinal effect explains the phenomenon.

THE SPEED OF AN AIRPLANE PROPELLER.—[See page 27.]









# A UNIVERSAL VISE.

BY JACQUES BOYER.

Vises usually occupy fixed positions and serve merely as clamps by which the wood or other material is prevented from moving while the workman is compelled to adapt the position of his tools and his body to circumstances as best he may. The ordinary vise so matter what its purpose for which it is designed consists of two jaws one fixed the other movable. The latter is moved toward and away from the former by a long square threaded screw which turns in a nut in the fixed jaw and in a roller in the movable jaw and the movement is opposed by a flat spring which takes up the lost motion.

The universal vise invented by P. Glogon is mounted on a ball and socket joint which allows it and the object held by it to be turned in a y direction so that the work can be done more conveniently and in a favorable light. When the vise has been set in the desired position the ball and socket joint is locked and held motionless by a double ended jaw operated by a wire (terminating in a loop in which the workman's foot is placed).

As the accompanying photograph indicates the universal vise is designed primarily for the use of shoemakers. It can be employed with advantage in shaping sewing needles and almost every other operation involved in the making and repairing of shoes. The shoe and the standard which carries it can be turned into any position and instantly immobilized without touching the screw of the vise so that shaping can be done much better than is possible with the rotating vertical standard as the sole and the heel can be placed in the positions most favorable for working.

The apparatus is a very simple and comprises only five large parts and two pins.

The Pacific coast lumber man factories have taken the initiative in an important step for the promotion of

proper and conservative use of their timber supply. Practically all of the large manufacturers of lumber in the States of Oregon and Washington have entered into an agreement to manufacture odd as well as even lengths in scoring, planing and similar planing-mill products. Heretofore it has been customary to manufacture these products in even lengths only. Now it is proposed to trim the manufactured lumber to lengths of odd numbers as well as even numbers of feet. Under

the finishing material in place. Because of the conservative element which enters into this question, the United States Forest Service has been recommending the adoption of odd lengths for some time past. The Portland office of the Service has recently made an investigation of the actual amount of lumber waste incident to the manufacture of even lengths only and these figures show that under the old system the refuse burned consumed about two per cent of the total amount of the important forms of

planing-mill products which are manufactured from Douglas fir and other important forest species in the States of Oregon and Washington. When it is considered that about 750,000,000 feet of planing mill products are manufactured annually in the two States mentioned above this two per cent assumes important proportions. The Forest Service is authority for the statement that 15,000,000 board feet of high-grade lumber can be saved annually in Oregon and Washington by the manufacture of planing-mill products into lengths of odd feet as well as even. It would require the yearly growth of timber on approximately 50,000 acres of average timber land to produce the amount of lumber which this annual waste represents. The manufacturer is convinced that the waste is unnecessary. His greatest trouble now lies with a similar conviction on the part of the consumer that odd lengths can be used as economically as even lengths.

The new Mexican Pan American Railway has already been opened states the American Merchant and the line is in active operation from San Jeronimo on the Tehuantepec Railway to Tapachula in Chiapas. The extension of that line will be continued to Port San Benito on the Pacific coast. There is also planned a new railway passing through parts of the States of Coahuila and Chihuahua, about 375 miles long.



THE UNIVERSAL VISE

the old system a considerable portion of the lumber which came to the shaping machine was wasted and this action has been taken in order to save that waste. Considerable opposition to this innovation has arisen among retailers and consumers. The retailer contends that it is impossible for him to dispose of odd length material because of the common practice in the construction of wooden buildings claiming that the initial saving of the manufacturer is transferred to the consumer. This is denied however because of the proportionally small amount of odd length material which will occur under the new system and because of the latter day practice of laying sub-floors of rough lumber and sheathing on the sides of the house before putting

# MECHANICAL BOWLING MACHINE.

BY THE ENGLISH CORRESPONDENT OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

Numerous efforts have been made from time to time to devise a mechanical apparatus for reproducing human action in the delivery of a ball in various games here such as required as in baseball, cricket, tennis and so forth. The problem however is somewhat abstruse inasmuch as in bowling someone is largely dependent upon the brains of the bowler who resorts to varying subterfuges to perplex his opponent such as varying the pace, swerve and break of the ball while in the air or after it has struck the ground. To reproduce these peculiarities into mechanical effect is no easy matter but an English engineer

Mr. D. D. Fawcett M. E. of Birmingham has perfected an ingenious device for fulfilling the desired purpose.

As may be seen the apparatus comprises a tripod of steel tubing firmly fixed to the ground by means of specially designed anchors which correspond to the body of the bowler. The ball rests freely in a semi-spherical cup or hand carried at the outer end of a lever about the length of the human arm with which it corresponds the low end of this lever being pivoted to the body at the shoulder.

When the machine is at rest the arm remains in a vertical position and the bowling operation is produced by pressing this arm backward into a horizontal position with the ball resting in the cup-shaped hand. Directly the arm is released it flies toward its normal position describing therein a quarter of a circle the ball being propelled through the air with varying velocity as desired toward its objective. This forward movement of the moving arm is produced by the

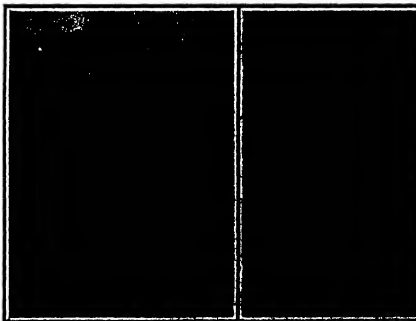
action of a strong spiral spring one end of which is attached to the moving lever a short distance above the shoulder while the other end is attached to the body by an adjustable tightening screw. By means of this screw the momentum imparted to the arm and consequently the velocity of the ball can be regulated merely by altering the tension of the spiral spring.

A ball delivered in this manner though fast or slow according to variation of spring tension is a straight-forward delivery—it possesses none of that swerve spin or gyration causing it to break to the right or

left when coming into contact with the ground and which is so baffling to the batsman. This requirement is fulfilled in an ingenious manner. The center of the cup-shaped receptacle or palm of the mechanical hand has a roller or drum with its axis running transversely with the bottom of the cup and having its periphery projecting slightly above the spherical surface of the palm so that when the ball is inserted it rests upon this drum. The cup itself is fixed into a box-shaped casing of such dimensions that the external diameter of the cup will fit against the four internal sides of its containing box.

Attached to the base of this outer box and at right angles therewith is a hollow spindle or tube mounted on a bearing which is rigid with the end of the arm and in which it can be revolved. It will be observed, however that the axle on which the drum revolves is at right angles with the hollow spindle on which the box and cup are mounted the spindle itself being at right angles with the axle of the drum. This spindle has a groove over which passes a hand the ends of which hold down a recess in the arm to within a short distance of its joint with the body and then the hand is moved at a feigning stroke and the ball is propelled forward in a straight line as if by the hand, by means of the lever and spring mechanism described above.

When the arm is again raised the ball is again propelled forward in a straight line as if by the hand, by means of the lever and spring mechanism described above.



Inserting the ball in the "hand" of the machine.

The machine in the act of throwing the ball.

A MECHANICAL BOWLING MACHINE.

# AN AUTOMATIC RAILWAY SAFETY STOP.

BY DR. ALFRED GRADENWITZ

Since the terrible catastrophe on the Berlin Wiesbaden and Unterden Eichen railway caused by a train running by a stopping signal, the German railway administrations have been giving increased attention to automatic braking devices for preventing the recurrence of such accidents. The apparatus illustrated in the accompanying figures has been adopted provisionally, and is now being tested out. Its object is to warn the engineer and fireman by visible and sound signals and set the brakes, all being done simultaneously.

The safety device consists of contact levers mounted on the locomotive, and pedal contacts arranged on the track. The former are always arranged on the right-hand side of the engine, and are actuated by a permanently tightened spiral spring. In the interior of the cab is arranged in a conspicuous position the repeating box, which is intended for indicating to the driver: (1) whether the track is disengaged, (2) which signal has been passed over, or (3) that the apparatus is out of order, the various indications being signalled on a red background inside a white frame, immediately before the engineer's eyes.

Above this repeating box is arranged a recording box, which mainly contains a clockwork, which is actuated if the train runs by some signal. This clockwork sets a roller and paper tape rotating and thus causes a dash or dot to be inscribed. Furthermore, the engine driver is free to produce, on the same paper tape, before passing the signal, an annular mark, showing the signal to have been duly attended to. These marks may serve as useful records in the case of law-suits.

On the roof of the driver's stand is mounted an alarm siren, the howling sound of which is readily distinguished from that of ordinary locomotive whistles. The same siren is used as a braking signal in the case of brakeless goods trains. On the running board of the locomotive is arranged the brake-cock casing, containing, in addition to the brake-cock, a click for tightening the spring above mentioned, and, accordingly, the whole apparatus. This click, in turn, is connected through the draw-bar 10 with the contact levers 6. These two contact levers 6 on sliding over the contacts pull downward the draw-bar 10 and thus set the apparatus working. The apparatus is

actuated only in the event of both levers being struck simultaneously. This arrangement thus insures thorough reliability of operation.

At each distant signal there is arranged a single

pair of track contacts, and at the main signal, two pairs, situated about 10 to 20 yards in advance, and connected with the signals so to be lifted when the signal is closed, thus protruding beyond the rail head and coming into contact with the sliding levers of the locomotive. In the event of the signal being drawn, they are located below the rail head, so as to avoid any contact.

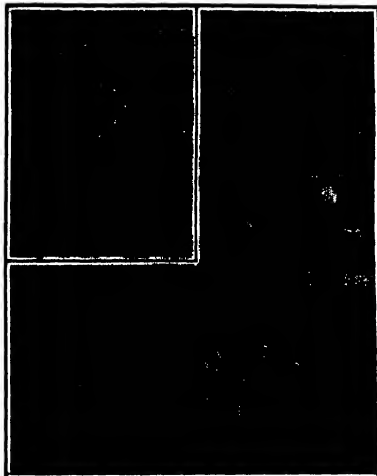
In addition to these stationary pedals movable pedals are provided which are readily fitted behind fish plates, with a view to warn and stop trains at any point of the track.

The working of the apparatus is as follows. On the contact levers passing over the track contacts, the draw bar 10 is pulled down, thus disengaging the click. The apparatus is merely operated by the spiral spring, and as the contact levers perform no work outside of disengaging the tightening apparatus, any heavy shocks are prevented, and the wear and tear is reduced considerably.

On passing over a distant signal, the contact lever strikes only a single pair of pedals situated on the track, thus closing an electric circuit, by the action of which the alarm siren is sounded, while a disk bearing the inscription "distant signal" appears in the cab signal box and a dash is marked on the paper tape in the repeating box. The brake cock is opened at the same time and the train is stopped automatically. Owing to the automatic disengagement of the brakes, the driver is in a position himself to throw the apparatus out of gear, and to continue his journey.

On a closed main signal being passed over, the contact with the first pair of pedals produces an effect, as above stated, during a very short time, which effect is reinforced immediately by the second pair of track contacts. In fact, this second contact further disengages the click, thus opening completely the braking cock and producing a rapid braking. At the repeating box appears a disk with the inscription "main signal," while at the same time a dot is marked in the recording box. In addition to this, a checking lead is broken. The second contact also causes the apparatus to become locked up, so that the engine driver is no longer in a position himself to throw the apparatus out of gear, before the train guard has re-

(Continued on page 55.)



Upper engraving shows contact apparatus in operation. The lower engraving shows contact of single lever without dash.

Tripping device in operation.

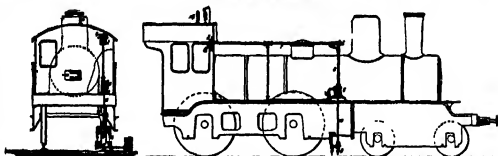


Diagram showing arrangement of track and engine contacts, and connections to sight and sound warning devices in cab.



At the engine stand post a danger signal, track contacts display a signal in the cab and blow a warning whistle.

Engine locomotive fitted with automatic safety device.

# FRICITION AT RAILWAY CURVES.

BY J. F. SPRINGER

When two material surfaces are in contact with each other, there are two distinct methods of with drawing points of contact from each other. Consider such points to be extremely small plane areas. Thus, let Fig. 1 represent a high magnified fractional view of two contacting points. *AB* represents the infinitesimal plane area. (First) The surfaces may be with drawn from each other by moving *C* or *D* (or both simultaneously). In a direction perpendicular to the plane represented by *AB*. This gives rise to what is termed *rolling friction*. (Second) Withdrawal may be effected by moving *C* or *D* (or both simultaneously) in any one of the directions lying in the plane represented by *AB*. Thus, the movement may be along *AB*. The direction is immaterial, provided it is in the line plane of contact. This method of withdrawal gives rise to *sliding friction*.

Now material surfaces are not perfectly smooth. When in contact under pressure, the projecting particles interlock with each other—as idealized in Fig. 2. It can readily be seen that movement in the directions *C* or *D* would tend to shear off the large projections 1, 2, 3, 4, while movement in the directions *B*, *F* would tend to shear off merely the interlocking protuberances of the large projections. That is to say, sliding friction involves abrasion of the projecting particles, while rolling friction relates merely to projections on projections. Consequently, it is not difficult to comprehend that sliding and rolling frictions belong to different orders of magnitude. In fact, the one kind of friction is a most important consideration in mechanical engineering, while the other is usually negligible.

It is easily seen that the movement along *AB* produces that we all understand by sliding friction, but perhaps some may hesitate at considering perpendicular withdrawal as rolling friction. Consider Fig. 3. Here the wheel is rolled in the direction given by the arrow *C*. The rotation about the point of contact *A* is effected by the change of the instantaneous center of rotation from *A* to the next point *B*. [See article "Some Principles of Ball Bearing Design" in *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN* for November 4th, 1907.] In making this change, *A* moves perpendicularly away from *A'*. Likewise *B* approaches *B'* perpendicularly. And so on throughout the roll—the points of contact approach and recede from each other perpendicularly to the surfaces of contact.

Now it will not be very hard to see that any movement of withdrawal that is oblique is really a compound of the perpendicular and parallel movements. We may provisionally assume that in so far as it is perpendicular it is a rolling friction, and that in so far as it is parallel it is a sliding one. That there are such compound frictions may be seen by consulting the article to which reference has already been made.

Now two very important economic questions arise in connection with friction. First, friction wears the contacting parts. This is a matter of very considerable significance. Second, friction consumes power in performing this abrasion. In some cases, this becomes a matter of still greater importance. However, they go hand in hand—useless destruction of material and waste of the power used in accomplishing this destruction.

These two factors have, perhaps, been more or less recognized almost from the beginning of the age of machinery. But it is only in comparatively recent years that their vital importance has begun to come to the fore. In every direction in the machine world this is testified to at the present time by the introduction of ball and roller bearings. These serve—with more or less perfect reference to the wear and tear of sliding for rolling friction. In the railway world, the antifriction movement is actuated by the fact that large outlays are being made to eliminate the friction at curves. Reduction of friction is also in view.

But the railroads certainly have in view the economic gain to be derived from the avoidance of that excessive wear on rail and wheel which occurs when rounding a curve, and the money saving effected by saving the steam power wasted in effecting the wear and tear of sliding for rolling friction.

That railway curve give rise to a very excessive amount of friction may be understood from the amount of wear occurring at a certain curve in the "subway" of the Boston Elevated Railway. Car wheels and rails were replaced at a certain point, on the average, every forty four days. The amount of wearing down on the heads of these rails was about three-quarters of an inch. As to what was the cause of this excessive rubbing this wear, no one has any exact information. But it must have been very considerable. Three-quarters of an inch was not worn off the rail head without corresponding effect on the wheels and trucks.

What happened at this curve is happening in

greater or less degree, upon all curves, wherever located. It is a matter of interest and importance, then, to consider more particularly the causes of friction at railway curves.

Three prominent factors enter. The first usual factor arises out of two facts. The outer rail of a curved track is longer than the inner one. And yet the one must be covered in the same time as the other. Then the wheels and axle are so combined that two wheels and the corresponding axle operate as a single piece. Consequently, the one wheel is compelled to rotate at precisely the same speed as the other. In rounding a curve, however, a greater distance is covered by the one. This conflict of rotational velocities between the two wheels results in slippage, and this of course means wear of metal and loss of power. It is to be observed that this friction occurs irrespective of the speed of the train. For the difference in length of rail between the two sides of the track remains precisely the same, and this controls the amount of slippage. The seriousness of the friction is accentuated, however, by the speed.

It has been proposed so to arrange the wheels and axle that this slippage could be avoided. This might be done in two ways. Both wheels might be rotatably mounted, the axle being kept "dead"; or, the one

represents such an arrangement, the wheel contacts being supposed to be at the vertices *A*, *B*, and *C*. This track would no doubt withstand any tendency operating to throw it in the direction of the arrow at *O*. Consequently, the opposite direction would give rise to the situation in Fig. 5. If at no other time, such a tendency would arise at a curve in the track when the rail corresponding to *O* tended away from the truck as a whole. This condition of affairs is represented in Fig. 7.

The lowest number of wheels which when combined in a truck are competent to maintain themselves upon a track is four. The four-wheeled truck is consequently the unit that must be dealt with in considering the friction arising at curves.

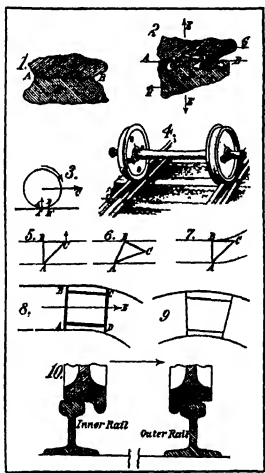
Now when such a truck rounds a curve, the outer wheel of the forward axis is the one which first meets the change of direction. This is shown in Fig. 8, where the wheel at *C* has begun to respond to the curvature. The wheel at *D*, because the rail curves away from it, will tend to be relieved. The impetus of the truck is in the direction *B*. Consequently, there is a severe grind at *C*. And this condition obtains throughout the curve.

No doubt if, during the time of rounding the curve, the axes of the truck could always lie in radii of the curve, as shown in Fig. 9, the friction arising from the rigidity of the truck formation would be largely reduced, if not entirely eliminated. Investors seeking to attack this problem must remember that the arrangement of the truck cannot be feasible. The change from the rectangular form to that of the isosceles trapezoid must be sufficiently instantaneous. It must not go further than requirements demand. Further, conditions must be so arranged that the truck bends in the opposite direction. Altogether, this is a very pretty problem.

Another factor which enters is one pointed out by Edward Gifford. The center of the wheel is not horizontal, but inclined, as in Fig. 10. On the outside wheel of the forward axis the climbing tendency resulting from the effort of the truck to move it a straight line forces the wheel flange to some such position as that shown in Fig. 11. This is aided, of course, by the fact that thus greater speed is attained. Reverse conditions on the inner side of the curve cooperate in the slowing of the whole axle outward, because this is the side to which the truck is inclined. The result of the truck. Now the result of this slowing is to bring a very small portion of the outer wheel in contact with the head of the rail. There arises, thus, a severe rubbing action. This is a factor of no small importance of all the factors giving rise to friction at curves. It is due to a combination of the causes producing the other two.

Death of William A. Edy.

William A. Edy, well known throughout the country for his many life-saving experiments, died recently after an illness of several months. Mr. Edy's life was spent in the study of life flying, to which art he contributed much that is valuable. Although a self-taught man, he did much useful work, particularly in kite photography. Later he was very much interested in aeronautics, to which his kite investigations naturally drew him.



FRICITION AT RAILWAY CURVES.

wheel might be made integral with the axle, and the other rotatably mounted. That either method would be effective can scarcely be doubted, but practical railroad people do not seem to take kindly to wheels mounted rotatably on an axle.

Whether they are justified or not, there is another friction factor which enters and which is of far greater weight. In order to get this clearly before the mind it will be well, perhaps, to consider the action of a head of the rail on a straight track. Suppose we take a single pair of wheels and the corresponding axle. These wheels are flanged on the inside, as in Fig. 4. Now it will readily be granted that the wheels used be kept perpendicular to the direction of the rails. In the case of the single pair of wheels, how will this be maintained? The two planes of the flanges at the places of contact with the heads of the rails of the rail no doubt give some assistance. But this is practically negligible for the reason that a tight fit is not permissible. In fact, a very slight disturbance would be competent to destroy the perpendicularity of the axle, and a straight track is not a straight track.

Consequently, some additional means must be utilized. If we attempt to solve this problem by constructing a truck of three wheels, all being maintained unobtainable in their relative position to each other we should not succeed. In Fig. 5, the change *ABC*

Dr. Cuvier of Vienna, who has undertaken a study of the chemical structure of cannabidiol, the active principle of hashish or Indian hemp, gives the following graphic description of the peculiar intoxication which hashish produces: "It is as if the user found every thought that passed through the brain, and every bodily movement a source of joy. The hashish user does not experience the hind of pleasure which is produced by the gratification of his senses. He feels the joy of one who hears good news, of the miser counting his gold, of the lucky gambler, or the successful seeker after fame. He is the sport of every impulse, the servant of his thoughts is directed by the slightest suggestion, and he is in a posture to suggest new images and ideas, with marvellous quickness and precision. For this reason the Oriental hashish eater, before he gives himself up to the enjoyment of his drug, takes care to remove from his presence everything that could disturb mechanically or by feeling, either that of some delight. For the accomplishment of this object, he walks up and down every minute, which the gratification of his senses is as his dream. In his hand, particularly by his will, under the spell of such words, his thoughts dance, he enjoys a delirium in which he feels himself transported to the paradise where the angels and the purest of the saints dwell."—*Scientific American*, Jan. 8, 1911.

## THE WIND OF AN AIRPLANES PROPPELLER.

The idea of propelling a gas machine weighing half a ton at the speed of an airplane by means of a fan seems absurd on the face of it. One is apt to discount the power of a fan. Air is such an intangible, hesperandous, substanceless fluid, that it seems impossible to obtain sufficient pressure on it to drive a machine of any appreciable weight. Yet this is what a flying machine propeller must do. The result is obtained by making the propeller of such size and driving it at such speed that it is able to drive a stationary, the propeller will generate a current of air flowing at the rate of a hurricane. We know something about the power of heavy gales, and when we consider that an aeroplane propeller is capable of producing a moderate-sized cyclone, it is easier to conceive of its exerting sufficient force to drive a 1,000-pound aeroplane at a fast clip. Flying machines have attained a speed of over fifty miles per hour. In order to do this, the propeller must have been driven fast enough to have produced a current of air considerably more than this velocity, because the fluidity and elasticity of the air is sufficient to cause a considerable "slip" of the propellers, which reduces their efficiency to a large extent, depending upon the design of the propeller. Our front-page illustration this week shows Mr. Hubert Latham's "Antoinette" monoplane under way, a test of its speed. The propeller was revolving at the rate of about 1,100 revolutions per minute, which is about the rate of the average electric fan, but when we consider that the propeller describes a circle 5½ feet in diameter, it is not surprising that it is at rest in motion by the machine can be conceived. At a test made in England last fall, a thrust of 565 pounds was obtained. Supposing the motor to develop only 10 horse-power, it is evident that the propeller, if it is rated, this is equivalent to but 8.8 pounds per horse-power, which is about all the average propeller will give. A prominent American experimenter has lately obtained 125 pounds thrust with a 10-horse-power motor, but in this instance a large 6-foot propeller making but 400 R. P. M. was used. Such a propeller is more efficient and produces a greater thrust per horse-power. In the instance shown was also of a special form. The illustration shows Mr. Farman at one side of the machine, and Mr. Curtiss at the other. It is curious to note that the hay circle produced by the rapidly rotating propeller is not a true circle, but a wide dark band. These are shadows cast on the blades. The shadows are, of course, intermittent, as they fall upon the blades only as they come within the range of the shadow. The illustration shows the propeller which was submitted to us some time ago by one of the readers of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN. He proposed to show the shadow of a man on a string. The proposition appeared absurd at first, but he soon demonstrated that the complete shadow, showing a perfect profile of the man's face, could be shown on the string, provided the string were weighted at one end and whirled around so that it formed a heavy arch of reflected light similar to that produced by the propeller blades in our front-page illustration. The persistence of vision of course accounts for the same in the first place and for the shadow as well, because both are intermittent, as an instantaneous photograph would show.

## The Public Bath system of New York City.

In a paper presented before Section I of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at the Boston meeting, December 18th, 1909, entitled "The Public Bath System of New York City," by William H. Hild, Ph.D., of the University of Chicago, the Public Bath system of New York City, some interesting facts were stated showing the increase and utility of this recent public institution for the promotion of the public health.

Prior to the consolidation of the surrounding cities into Greater New York there was no interior public bath. All were located along the river front as floating baths. The first interior public bath in Greater New York was established on Rivington Street on the east side of the city March 23rd, 1901, and has been the most crowded of any bath, on the average, for years.

Newer baths opened on Pitkin and Montrose Avenues, Brooklyn borough, have had more bathers in hot weather than any others. It is stated that on one hot summer day 9,000 bathers used them. The third public bath was opened in Manhattan on November 23rd, 1904, in West 12th Street. At the present time there are seven in Brooklyn, twelve in Manhattan, and one each in the boroughs of Queens and Bronx. In the Brooklyn borough during 1909, 5,000,000 persons patronized their new interior public baths. In 1909, up to December 1st, 1,717,789 persons used all the baths in this borough, showing an increase over the previous year.

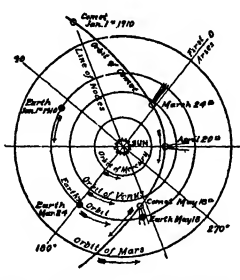
In Brooklyn a small change in habits, I want to say, of men and I want to say, of women, has made a difference in the use of the public bath. The "free" bath, as it is called, is now the most popular, although in some

later bath houses swimming pools have been built fifty feet long by thirty-five feet wide, said to be the largest in the city. Here, bath houses have a gymnasium built in the second story above the bath house proper. This has been found to be a most useful adjunct. Mr. Hale suggested still further that roof gardens be built above the gymnasiums. He also recommended that there should be a greater extension of facilities for public bathing, particularly the establishment of a great public bath by the sea modelled after the baths at Beverly Beach and Manhattan Beach in Massachusetts. At Coney Island on city property each public bath structure could be constructed as would be remunerative to the city and yet would supply a pressing public want. Mr. Hale further recommended the establishment of a separate bureau of public baths and gymnasiums, with uniform pay to attendants and officers, to cover the whole city. The city should have full control of the proposed seaside baths, as they are intruded for the entire city and not wholly for the borough in which they are located.

## RELATIVE POSITIONS OF HALLEY'S COMET, THE EARTH, AND THE SUN.

At the top of the accompanying drawing the comet is shown in its position for January 1st, 1910, outside of the orbit of Mars. At the left the earth is moving in its orbit a very small distance, the distance between them being about 316 million miles.

On March 13th the earth will reach the position shown in the drawing, while the comet will have moved to a point on the opposite side of the sun. During this period (January 1st to March 24th) the comet will be visible, with the telescope, in the western evening sky, but on March 24th, when passing back



## RELATIVE POSITIONS OF HALLEY'S COMET, THE EARTH, AND THE SUN.

of the sun, will be invisible for several days. The distance between the earth and comet at this time will be 165,000,000 miles.

When the comet next emerges from the rays of the sun it will have shifted to the morning sky, rising before dawn, and for the first time becoming an inter-ceting object to the naked-eye observer. The earth and comet will now rapidly approach each other and the latter will appear intensely brilliant.

About April 20th it will pass its nearest point to the sun, as shown in the drawing, and on May 15th it will again disappear in the sun's rays—this time, however, passing in the front of the great luminary. It is predicted that the nucleus will cross the sun's disk about five minutes of a degree from its center, thus furnishing an opportunity to observe whether the nucleus is opaque to the sun's rays.

The transit will not be visible in the United States as it will occur after sunset here.

On the night of May 15th the earth and comet will rush past each other and the earth will probably sweep through the tail of the comet. They will be only 12,000,000 miles apart. After May 15th the comet will attain its maximum of splendor in the evening sky, and in a few days thereafter its glory will rapidly fade.

## The Current Supplement.

Dr. Alfred Grandvaux opens the current SUPPLEMENT, No. 1778, with an article on a snow plow employed on a Swiss railway. Some interesting information on submarine sound signals is presented. Mr. G. R. Rogers writes exhaustively on friction drums and brakes. The employment of electrolysis in chemical manufacture is made the subject of an interesting article by Prof. R. Lepoint. Mr. Charles R. King describes a new gas turbine process. One of the most important questions in connection with aerial

navigation is the provision of suitable places of refuge for the enormous dirigible balloons of which Germany is the proud possessor. The problem is discussed in a copiously illustrated article by our German aero-nautic correspondent. Dr. Robert Amery writes on coffee as a beverage and describes a new method of preparing it for the table. The great gulf deposits of Peru are described and illustrated. A German correspondent summarizes the electrical and electrochemical applications of babbite.

## Correspondence.

## THE END OF THE "DANIEL TENERY"

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN: In looking over some old files of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN to-day, I found in the issue of March 12th, 1897, reference of the building of the old merchant ship "Daniel J. Tenney" built at Newburyport, Mass., by John J. Courter, Jr.

This item, in connection with the storm now raging, carries me back to eleven years ago today, when the "Daniel J. Tenney" was lost off the coast of Massachusetts. In the disastrous November gale. The wreckage was strewn for miles along the shores of Scituate and Marshfield. A portion of the stern containing the mainmast was thrown upon the beach. I picked up some of the debris, the wreck of the cabin, and have made several pieces of furniture of it, which are prized quite highly by the owners. This is the only relic of the career of the ocean ship which so proudly braved the storms of old ocean so many years.

Perhaps some of your readers may be interested to know where the "Daniel J. Tenney" laid her bones to rest.

Ben View, Mass.

## THE INVENTOR OF THE STEAMBOAT

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN: I beg to thank you for publishing my letter, as also for your courtesy in sending me the copies of your current issue.

I wish to point out that although I insist that it would be a most difficult matter to prove that any other of the so-called inventors have any just claim to priority, yet it is a really pretty proof of an "inventor" having produced a practically successful steamboat prior to 1714 is available, that I would once for all sink any claim on behalf of Jonathan Hulls, but in my humble opinion, from research I have made upon the subject, such is not possible. Therefore I hold myself sure that he and he alone should have the great honor ascribed to him "Why anyone refute this?"

I claim practical success of his invention, but not commercial success, and to do justice to an inventor's memory, it should be noted for the purpose of requiring commercial success. He laid the foundation for commercial success this fact is undeniable, therefore why should he not have the honors and distinction for his genius? Always remembering that he was many years ahead of his competitors.

I do not admit, what is so generally claimed, that it is not the man who invents, as the man who puts into actual practice, that is deserving of the honor. Without the man who invents, there could be no need. Neither would he have any place for putting into practice that which he would otherwise have had no knowledge of, had it not been for the earlier inventors.

It appears clear that Jonathan Hulls, although the side-wheel boat had existed for many years propelled by both manual and animal power, was the first to actually find the first to suggest steam power to supersede both methods by steam propulsion. And with his original innovation of the steam wheel, combined with the side paddle, his claim to originality is made doubly sure, always remembering the very early date of his invention and the very crude form of steam engine which then existed. Therefore the greater the honor that should be awarded to the original inventor.

With regard to Fulton, no serious claim can stand in face of the foregoing. To put it mildly he was only a copyist in the matter of steam propulsion. I cannot too forcibly insist that Robert Fulton has no claim whatever on this fact. As Arthur Daniel corroborates. This gentleman asserts that "Fulton" should certainly set up a monument for Jonathan Hulls, as he was undoubtedly the original inventor in England," and in further states "whether he actually built the boat or not is of no special consequence."

I have been able to provide proof that he did build his boat, and that it was a practical success. I consequently, any additional proof I have supporting him—and they are numerous—would be quite superfluous. There could not possibly be more than one inventor of steam navigation, whatever adjective he used.

J. JONES HULLS

Manor Park, Essex, England

## GLASS ESPALIER WALLS.

BY JACQUES BOYER

In the cultivation of fruits on the espalier system the trees and vines are trained along a wall of stone or brick to which all their branches are carefully attached so as to spread them out into a plane surface and allow free access of light and air to every part. Ordinarily the direction of the wall is determined by local circumstances and is variable of pears, berries, achras, apricots, apples and other fruits which are trained along the wall are selected with reference to the direction.

Until very recently if the wall was built in an east and west direction so as to expose one face to the south the other face was almost entirely wasted. In order to remedy this state of affairs several fruit growers have conceived the idea of employing transparent espalier walls through which the light of the sun can penetrate to the trees planted on the north side of the wall. Comte Horace de Chodave in particular has conducted a series of very interesting experiments of this sort on his estate at Viry Châtillon in the Department of Seine-et-Oise and has obtained some very promising results. He built a glass wall 6½ feet high and about 60 feet long extending in an east and west direction and planted fifteen pear trees of the variety Winter Doyen on each side north and south. The bearing surface of the wall amounted to about 26 square yards on each side. The south side yielded 154 pears of a total weight of 81 pounds and the north side bore 119 pears weighing 77 pounds making a total of 233 pears with an average weight of 184 pounds. All of the pears were of particularly fine appearance without blemishes of any kind and it is a remarkable fact that the fruit which was gathered from the north face of the wall was even milder in taste than that which was produced on the southern side. Each square yard of the glass wall produced nine or ten pears of an average weight of about 11 ounces.

Another experiment with glass espalier walls has been made by MM. Crous & Sons in their nursery at Val d'Aulnay in the Department of the Seine. The wall which they constructed also lies east and west and consequently presents northern and southern exposures. As the accompanying photographs show the wall is surmounted by a glass roof projecting on each side. Along one face of the wall were planted Calville apples. Winter Doyen, Paine-Cressane and Director Alphonse pear trees together with peach trees and grape vines are being taken to place the same varieties on each side in order to make the comparison easy and accurate.

In 1907 these trees and vines produced their first crop in which no difference was observed in the fruit produced from the north and south sides of the wall and so the sides of the wall could be devoted to the same result as shown by the results of 1908 and 1909. There is indeed little difference in temperature between the north and south faces as the former is heated by the solar rays which traverse the glass and the latter is cooler than the south side of a masonry wall for the very reason that some of the incident solar radiation is transmitted

through the glass and consequently less is reflected and absorbed. This difference in absorbing power however makes the glass wall inferior to the masonry wall in the matter of warming the plants and protecting them from frost at night. A masonry wall absorbs a great deal of heat during the day and gives it out at night but this effect is comparatively small in the case of a wall of glass.

In the matter of cost there is little difference be-

inhabitant as have been published have amounted between 100,000,000 and 200,000,000 only. Census data at the present day the number of natives in China is mentioned as 400 to 450 millions, but expert geographers brand this number as greatly inflated. In many late books in consequence the reader finds only 350 to 380 or indeed only 350 millions stated as the probable extent of the population. Naturally it occurs to the thinker that the importance of all suppositions in regard to a fellow world and its directions must depend very largely on a sure calculation of the size of the population of China.

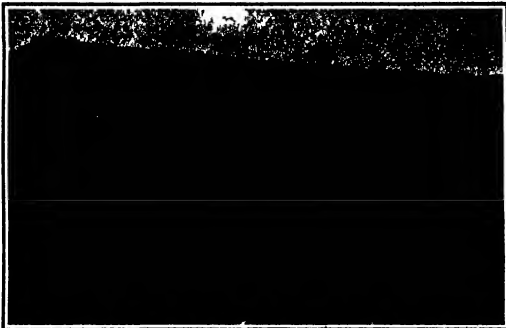
Of course in the course of former centuries the Chinese government projected and made at least the semblance of various censuses so that when they were published they were found to be mostly mere statements of the approximate number of families and were therefore quite valueless. The shadowy value of such censuses was not improved by the way by the Chinese government of the censuses of the individual provinces who when a census was ordered for the purpose of military conscription or of collection or imposition of a tax promptly falsified the figures.

Now finally the plan of the project of a real census of the whole Chinese Empire is to be executed and a complete and accurate census of individuals. The former is to be ready by the early part of 1910 the latter by 1913. In view of the immense extent of the Chinese Empire the vastness of this task can hardly be overestimated. The stupendous endeavor requires that a reliable system be maintained however by the present excellent organization of the Empire though the fact cannot be ignored that certain parts of the Empire down to the very frontiers are wholly independent and would resist the necessary official visitation required by the census in such districts or will try through the stiffest mediocrity possible to make the results of the census as far as they concern themselves utterly ridiculous.

Despite the recognition of the inevitable effect of such uncertainties and defects however the definite attempt to make a careful census of the population of China would be of great value and even if the final

published result of the double form of the census was not correct by 50 to 75 million individuals.

Concrete poles hemispherical in shape eight feet high are placed at the center of the corner and are used by the Oklahoma Gas and Electric Company. A 25-foot pole measures 17 inches at the base and 16 inches at the top and 16 inches across at the butt. They are loaded in "crus" made up of 14-foot sections, so that it is possible to erect a pole of practically any length. Steel rods are placed transversely about the central axis and at the top and bottom project through holes in a plate shell. The hole any beam is cut at each end and is separate between the pole which is wrapped with two thicknesses of barbed wire and is surrounded by a concrete shell about 12 inches thick. The hole is cut at each end and is separate between the pole which is wrapped with two thicknesses of barbed wire and is surrounded by a concrete shell about 12 inches thick. The hole is cut at each end and is separate between the pole which is wrapped with two thicknesses of barbed wire and is surrounded by a concrete shell about 12 inches thick.



A GLASS ESPALIER WALL (SOUTH SIDE)

tween the glass and the masonry walls. The outdoor glass employed by MM. Crous costs about \$6 or \$7 per linear yard of wall 8 feet high including the cost of the glass roof projecting over both sides. A masonry wall of the same height would cost \$4 or \$5 a yard and the addition of the glass roof which of course is equally necessary in this case would raise the total cost to \$6 or \$7 per linear yard. More extensive and long-continued experiments must be made however before it will be possible to pronounce a positive opinion concerning the relative merits of glass and masonry espalier walls.

There is now a prospect of a thorough, explicit census of the population of China. To grasp what this signifies one must first remember that China is vastly the most populous state of the whole world and secondly that hitherto such estimates of the number of its



A GLASS ESPALIER WALL (NORTH SIDE)

# GRAPHITE MINING IN CEYLON

BY THE ENGLISH CORRESPONDENT OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

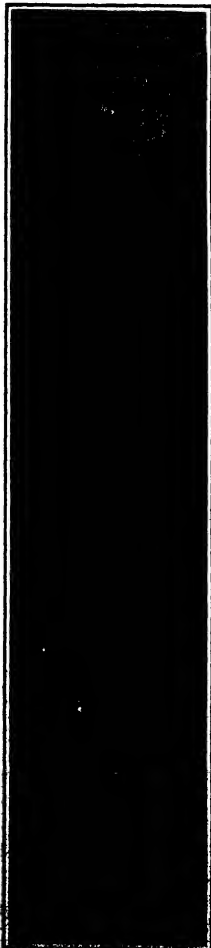
Among the various minerals found in the island of Ceylon, that which is the most abundant is graphite or plumbago, practically the only one found in sufficient quantity to render exploitation profitable. It has attained a worldwide reputation for its excellent quality, its composition being practically pure carbon, and is in extensive demand for crucibles. The average output is approximately 50,000 tons per annum, the greater part of which is exported to Great Britain and the United States. Within the past two decades

the trade has undergone considerable expansion, with the result that mining is being extensively developed.

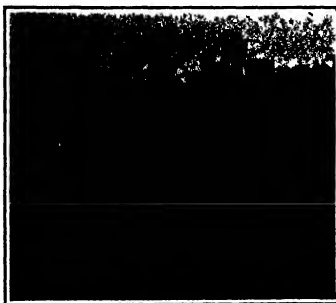
The mineral is found in veins and nests in the crystalline rocks occurring frequently in a fibrous or flaky form, the flakes being disposed at right angles to the wall of the vein. These veins vary in width, sometimes being less than an eighth of an inch, while in others they will extend to several feet. Some are found to follow the foliation planes of the various rocks, while others run crosswise or branch in all directions.

As a rule in a series of shafts sunk close to one another it will be found that a single main vein or several parallel veins will extend through the whole of these pits with minor veins stretching from either side along the planes of division. Even if the mineral is not found in continuous veins but rather in isolated pockets or nests these are generally parallel to one of the main directions. Investigations show that the mineral exists in a series of belts, but their extension can

(continued on page 30)



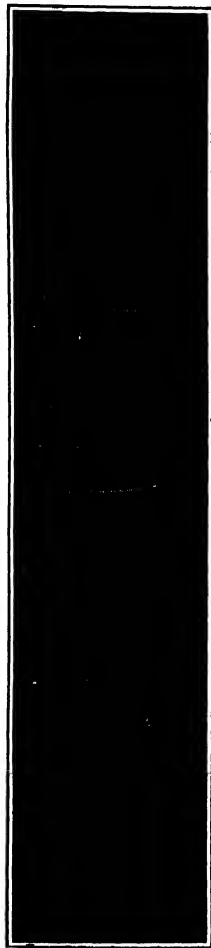
Sifting and screening the graphite.



Hand crushing, sifting, and breaking large pieces of graphite after screening.



Final sorting of graphite into first and second qualities and packaging for shipment.



Graphite pit, showing crude baling arrangements. Baling is carried on by natives.



# RUFUS PORTER AND HIS "FLYING SHIP."

BY C. E. McCLUER.



Soon after the Montgolfiers invented their first "hot air" balloon, which was almost immediately followed by the first "gas" balloon, the attention of scientists and inventors seems to have been centered on the spherical and elongated gas bag as a means of flotation, and the provision of propellers and rudders to enable the navigator to control the movements of the unwieldy and wind-tossed sphere, and produce what is now known and briefly described as a "dirigible" balloon. Omitting all reference to the work of the many accomplished and venturesome balloonists who originated or copied the various devices which they adopted for the guidance and management of their spherical or pear-shaped, or elongated and cigar-shaped gas envelopes, we will revert at once to the subject of our sketch.

Rufus Porter, belonging to that numerous class of ingenious New Englanders usually styled "Yankee inventors" was born at West Oxford, Mass., May 1st, 1792 and died in New Haven, Conn., August 12th, 1884. Although he received only a common district

varying success, his journalistic enterprise was purchased by the present proprietors of the *Scientific American*.

Among Porter's less noticed inventions, and the one from which I presume he reaped the smallest recompense, was a flying machine, or as now styled, a "dirigible" balloon, but which he dubbed an "aeroplane." As nearly as I can ascertain from the records at my command, this invention was made and patented in 1830, but not until 1853 did Porter seem to make any serious effort to exploit the device. In that year he organized what he called "The Aerial Navigation Company," and attempted to raise the funds necessary to enable him to construct his first aeroplane by an appeal to popular support through the sale of \$5 bonds or certificates.

Among the papers of my deceased father I have recently found one of these bonds, issued to him under date of April 24th, 1853, a facsimile of which is reproduced herewith.

Below follows an abbreviated copy of the "proposal

not exceed \$25 per day. It is ascertained by a minute and careful estimate that an aeroplane 150 feet long and capable of carrying five persons at a speed of sixty miles per hour, may be constructed for \$1,500. Now, having been disappointed of the funds requisite to put this invention in operation on a scale of practical utility, I propose that if three hundred persons will subscribe five dollars each, payable when the whole amount of 1,500 dollars shall have been subscribed, I will forthwith construct this pioneer aeroplane, (which may be done in six weeks), and when this is put in operation I can readily command the requisite funds for constructing a large aeroplane as above mentioned. And I will so arrange that each subscriber on the payment of the said sum of five dollars, shall be furnished with a regular title deed, which shall entitle the holder thereof to one three-hundredth part of this first aeroplane, and also to one three-hundredth part of the first large aeroplane that shall be constructed, and of all benefits and emoluments that may be derived therefrom for twenty years, the said aeroplane



FACSIMILE OF THE AERIAL NAVIGATION COMPANY BOND WHICH SHOWS THE PORTER AEROPHANE DIRIGIBLE CAR.

school education, he possessed an alert mind and a retentive memory, which, coupled with a natural genius for observation and invention, fitted him admirably for an active and useful life. His early displayed inventive abilities of no mean order, as is attested by the list of his patented inventions disclosed by the records of the Patent Office. Some of his patents displayed an acumen and foresight which led him into the way of progress, and proved that he was fully abreast if not actually ahead of his time. Among his numerous patented inventions we find enumerated a cord making machine, a steam carriage or ordinary road vehicle, propeller of the latter day automobile, a pioneer treadmill horse-power machine, a corn sheller, the inevitable Yankee churn, a washing machine, a signal telegraph, and a municipal fire-alarm system, the latter doubtless being the forerunner of the largely adopted and efficient Gamewell fire-alarm system, now so largely in vogue.

In 1840 we find Porter as editor of *The New York Mechanic*, the first purely scientific newspaper published in the United States. The next year it was removed to Boston and the title changed to *The American Mechanic*. In 1845, evidently not having made a pronounced success with the publication of *The American Mechanic* he returned to New York and began the publication of another journal which he styled "Scientific American, the Advocate of Industry and Enterprise, and Journal of Mechanical and Other Improvements," on a cash capital of \$100. The first number of the new periodical was issued on the 28th day of August, 1846. After six months of struggle, with

tion and prospectus" alluded to in the bond, as I find it printed in the issue of the National Intelligencer of March 19th, 1852.

"TEN FIFTY DOLLAR."

"A chance to secure a cash income of \$10 to \$20 per week for twenty years by the investment of five dollars in advance."

"It is extensively known that the underdeveloped but by theory and practical experiments so fully demonstrated the practicability of aerial navigation that all who have fully examined the subject are convinced, and no person, even of those whose interests are adverse to its success, can offer a word of rational argument against it. Several model machines have been constructed, and each of them has operated successfully, and one of them, sixteen feet long, carried a small steam engine, by the power of which the machine was propelled, and, being guided by its own helm, travelled rapidly through the air, even against a breeze of wind, in direct lines or circles, according to the adjustment of its helm. This machine was witnessed and applauded by hundreds in New York and Boston and notices thereof were published in several newspapers of these cities at the time. Since those experiments were made the inventor has made additional improvements whereby the invention is now perfected. And it appears certain that a safe and durable aerial ship (or aeroplane), capable of carrying one hundred and fifty passengers at a speed of ninety miles an hour, with more perfect safety than either steamboat or railroad cars, may be constructed for \$15,000, and that the expense of running it will

be kept in repair without expense to the shareholders. Washington, March 16th, 1852. Rufus Porter."

While with the added knowledge and experience of a half century we can see wherein Porter was mistaken in his calculations and visionary to a considerable degree, we can also see wherein he was in advance of his day and generation, and prepared to achieve the success that later and quite recently attended the efforts of Count Zeppelin and others of the present day, had he but been in possession of the gasoline or alcohol motor as now applied to dirigible balloons and aeroplanes. Comparing the beautiful representation of his aeroplane as given by the engraving printed on the bond, one cannot help being struck with its resemblance to the modern dirigible balloons. While, without repeating Porter's calculations as to the capacity of his aeroplane for tonnage and speed, I judge he was guilty of exaggeration, he certainly came slightly near the ideal conditions for a successful dirigible balloon with wedge of surfaces, better, and cabin greatly reduced. What method he adopted for stabilizing his gas cylinder in the absence of the metal, displacement, as used by Count Zeppelin, is not disclosed, but it is quite possible that inspection of his patent might disclose some valuable provision for that purpose.

Rufus Porter is certainly entitled to all the credit attending the organization of his "aerobically" enterprise, and the execution of his superior inventive genius in connection with the scheme of transportation, and to a present in this enterprise of some endeavor.

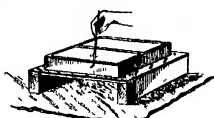


IMITATION MARBLE

BY J. J. LAMAR

A simple method of imitating marble with all its beautiful vein markings spots, and irregular lines and variable colors, is as follows:

The skill in giving the veining, etc., to the product will be quickly attained by making a few small slabs in a plain way previous to undertaking the production of a larger number. The colors for the veining must all be of a mineral character, as follows: plumbago (black lead), chrome green (dark), common crocus,



IMITATION MARBLE

yellow ochre, red oxide of iron, and nitramarine blue. Prepare a few pieces of stout sheet glass, say 7 inches by 11 inches (an ordinary 11x14 photographic negative cleaned and cut in halves is just the thing). Make a wooden frame of  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch board, an inch deep with a division in the middle, simply held together with 1 inch iron brads not driven firmly. Leave an eighth of an inch projecting so that they can be easily withdrawn with a pair of pliers. Arrange these strips of wood, after being thoroughly planed all over, so as to give two squares of five inches internal measurement.

Make up the following in a bottle: Paraffin wax,  $\frac{1}{2}$  ounce, benzine,  $\frac{1}{2}$  pint. Place this well corked in a warm room to dissolve, and stir by shaking it occasionally. When the paraffin is dissolved it is ready for use. Brush some of this preparation all over the inside of the wooden panel. Then take a piece of Canton flannel or soft rag, wet it with the benzine mixture, rub this well over the smooth side of the glass plate, polish it thoroughly with two pieces of soft rag until there appears to be nothing left, and place the frame upon the glass plate. Now lay a mirror, or a piece of plain silvered glass upon the work bench, or table, and place a block of wood at each end so that the glass plate and frame will rest about four inches above the mirror. The frame being held in place by a couple of rubber bands. Place a teaspoonful of chrome green in a small saucer and a teaspoonful of black lead in another saucer and add a dose or two of water to each.

Mix the following in any suitable vessel (a small stoneware pitcher being well suited). To ten ounces of water add sufficient plaster of Paris to make a mixture of the consistency of thick cream. Skim off the air bubbles and any dust that may float on top, when in the course of a minute or two the water will be covered with a fine film of plaster. Pour the remaining portion into the other square. Now dip a small brush into the molten black lead, press it through the soft plaster and paint the plate or slabs veining or spots. The plaster blends beautifully with the color and the mirror enables one to see the effects produced. Any time made too strong or lumpy in appearance can easily be rectified by a light stroke of the brush. Green streaks or veins may be painted with the same brush after washing it quickly and dipping it into the chrome green. Treat the other square in the same way.

Having now produced the veining, the block may be reinforced as follows: Have ready to hand a few pieces of pulverized iron netting. Cut a piece  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch square with a width of an inch or three-eighths of an inch wide. Bend up the wire ends and lay the piece down upon the plaster with rough ends sticking up. In the same position that the plaster was mixed, dip up about the same quantity of Portland cement, spread it in the water, fill and then add the cement, a

small quantity at a time, pour the mixture upon the plaster and wire netting until the plaster is filled. Treat the second square in the same way, allow the whole to stand for an hour, until both plaster and cement become quite set. As soon as all has become well set, draw out the brads with a pair of pliers and remove the woodwork carefully. This will hasten the drying. Take care not to shift the cast blocks upon the glass plate. Let them become quite dry while in contact. When dry the colors will not be more than one-third as brilliant as when wet, the effect being precisely like marble. The face of these blocks will possess very smooth surfaces with only a partial gloss upon them, being at the same time porous. The porosity can be stopped and the gloss improved by the use of amylose acetate. This is practically a solution of gum cotton in amylose acetate which not only fills the pores of the plaster, but forms a coating as clear and transparent as water. It retards the action of weak acids and alkalis and can be washed with water and a chamois leather at any time without injury to the object it covers.

When the squares are perfectly dry and slightly warm they must be placed in a plate or large saucer, containing a mixture of amylose acetate solution and one-third amylose acetate. This will continue to fill the pores of the plaster for a quarter of an inch or more in a short time. Remove the squares and stand on one corner to dry in a warm place. When dry a coating of the thick amylose acetate solution may be brushed upon the surface and allowed to drain from the opposite corner. The surface will improve in brightness with every coating. Amylose acetate solution costs about two dollars per gallon at any wholesale chemist's. A gallon will go a long way in waterproofing such slabs of imitation marble as here described.

A much harder material with a slight grain can be produced by mixing a small quantity of ground pumice or ground glass with the plaster which must be intimately mixed to insure uniformity. This mixture is sometimes termed Parlan cement. Imitation marble slabs can be made by the above process into any shape such as a keystone for a mantelpiece or trussler with an inlaid border and in many other ways that will suit the taste of the individual worker. In place of Portland cement, Parlan cement may be used as described above, thus producing a slab of an almost uniform color. Any size of slab may be made as described if course the thickness must increase with the size of the slab to give strength.

SOME CURIOUS CHEMICAL GROWTHS

BY ALFRED P. BOWMAN

The following experiments are somewhat out of the ordinary but may be performed with the materials at hand in any chemical laboratory, or obtainable at a well-stocked drug store.

In the first experiment mercury is prepared by throwing into it small pieces of clean metallic sodium. The sodium will almost immediately take fire and have a hard crust on the surface of the mercury. Break this crust with a glass rod and stir it in the mercury until it disappears. The little pill bottle on the right in the illustration contains five cubic centimeters of mercury having sodium dissolved in it. The tumbler on the left shows the white crystalline mass formed into "amalgamous amalgam," and occupying a space over fifty times the original volume of the mercury. The transformation was brought about by

sparging in nature, and its growth in all probability caused by the evolution of a gas. This is indeed the true explanation of the phenomenon. The  $\text{NH}_3$  of the ammonium chloride dissolves the mercury but soon the mass decomposes, and bubbles of ammonia and hydrogen gas escape the amalgam.

In a few moments the mass will begin to sink, and a strong smell of ammonia will be noticeable. If a lighted match is held over the small bubbles arising from the liquid, they will burn, lighting with the "pop" indicative of hydrogen. The mercury will soon return to its normal condition, in accordance with the following equation:



There can be no doubt that the  $\text{NH}_3$  is actually present in solution in the mercury, for when a salt of ammonium is decomposed by electrolysis, the  $\text{NH}_3$  ion upon its discharge gives ammonia and hydrogen and no  $\text{NH}_4$  is formed. If a pool of mercury is used as the negative electrode the  $\text{NH}_4$  dissolves in the mercury and forms an amalgam with it. However, during the formation it swells up and gives off the products mentioned above.



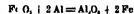
GROWTH OF ALUMINUM OXIDE ON A TELEPHONE RECEIVER.

The most interesting point about this experiment is that it is in accordance with the theory that ammonium would have the properties of a metal if it could be isolated, for excepting this substance the metals themselves can only be dissolved in mercury.

The second photograph is an illustration of an experiment depending upon the peculiar property of aluminum amalgam.

The action of sulphuric and nitric acids upon ordinary aluminum is very slow because the metal receives a coating of aluminum hydroxide and is shielded from the acid, but if aluminum is amalgamated with mercury, the action is very rapid.

Aluminum has a very great affinity for oxygen, and will displace all the metals save magnesium from their oxides. If a mixture of aluminum and ferric oxide is placed in a crucible, and fired by means of a piece of burning magnesium, a violent reaction takes place enough heat being produced to leave the iron, which is one of the products, in a highly molten state. This is the principle of the "thermite" used for welding, etc.



Some idea of the rate of action of the heat generated may be gained if three small iron crucibles are placed in a vertical column, one above the other and separated five or six inches. A mixture of aluminum and ferric oxide is placed in the top crucible and ignited. Almost immediately molten iron will melt its way through the bottom of the first crucible and pass through the second and third as fast as there was nothing in the way. A box of wood should be placed beneath the bottom crucible to catch the molten metal.

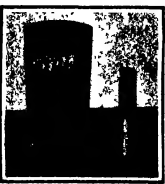
The affinity of aluminum for oxygen can be shown by amalgamating a piece of the metal with mercury. The mercury is almost immediately oxidized and the result is a growth of white tufts of aluminum oxide over the surface of the metal where it has been amalgamated. The growth will rise about one-eighth of an inch or more in five minutes.

The simplest method of amalgamating the aluminum is to clean a small portion, and then drop upon it some mercuric nitrate solution and allow it to dry. The growth will immediately commence.

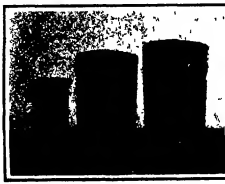
In the illustration, the case of an aluminum backed telephone receiver has been used for the experiment, and the resulting growth is shown by the white spots, principally on top and on the left.

The third photograph is a striking illustration of concrete pressure. The tall plant-like growths may be formed by throwing small pieces of any of the following crystalline chemicals: ferric nitrate, copper chlorate, cobalt nitrate, nickel sulphate and manganese sulphate into a beaker glass containing a diluted solution of sodium chloride of 11 specific gravity. The crystals will almost immediately sprout up into very fine fantastic shapes, and grow several inches in the course of a few minutes.

The salts dissolve in the water of the sodium salt



A SPONGE-LIKE TRANSFORMATION OF MERCURY.



PLANT-LIKE GROWTH DUE TO OSMOTIC PRESSURE.

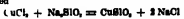
throwing the mercury into a tumbler containing a strong solution of sodium ammoniac in water. The mercury immediately swells up into a spongy mass. The time elapsing between the moment when the sodium amalgam was thrown into ammoniac solution and the taking of the photograph illustrated here was about thirty seconds.

The reaction may be represented as follows: ( $\text{Na}$  dissolved in  $\text{Hg}$ ) and  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl} = (\text{NH}_4 \text{ dissolved in } \text{Na})$ .

Upon examination of the mass, it is seen to be very



rate solution and react with the sodium silicate to form a silicate of the metal of the salt added. For instance, in the case of copper chloride copper silicate is formed.



Silicate of copper is insoluble and so the result of the reaction is a small portion of liquid around the crystal of  $\text{CuCl}_2$  surrounded by a mass of insoluble  $\text{CuSiO}_3$  where the copper chloride has come into contact with the sodium silicate.

Particles of a dissolved substance exercise a pressure similar to that of a gas explained in physical texts under the title of the kinetic-molecular hypothesis.

When the salt is first formed the pressure is equal on both sides but as more of the copper chloride dissolves the pressure on the inside of the sack becomes so great that it bursts at the top where the hydrostatic pressure of the liquid is least and the sack weakens.

The liquid spurting out of the top is immediately surrounded by a new sack and the process continues until the salt is exhausted or the growth reaches the surface of the liquid.

The silicate of the metals of the salts mentioned in the list above are also insoluble and the same explanation holds true for their action.

#### WIRELESS EXPERIMENTS WITH A STATIC MACHINE

BY H. N. W. JARVIS

In the large quantity of literature on wireless telegraphy practically the only method described of producing the high-tension currents required is that of using a powerful induction coil or a high-tension transformer on an alternating current. The possibility of utilizing the discharge from a direct generator of static electricity is barely touched upon. In order to test the practicability of the use of such a source of current the writer constructed a static machine of the Wimshurst pattern and made some experiments with it. The machine is photographically shown herewith with a glass jar fitted with two glass plates twenty inches in diameter supported on a half inch steel shaft. Each plate had thirty contacts of heavy inflexible 1/4 inch long. The brass work was made from 1/8 inch round rod and the brass balls on the collectors and Leyden jars were purchased from a manufacturer of brass bell shades as were the large balls terminating the discharge rods and the sending device below. These balls were filled with crushed inflexible and contact made by inserting the supporting rods in wooden bushings fitted in the necks of the balls.

The two Leyden jars showing at the front of the machine were made from hydrometer glasses provided with feet and each had a combined inner and outer coating of 60 square inches of foil. The interior coatings were arranged to be connected with the discharge rods by short loops of brass chain and the exterior coatings joined with a similar chain held along the base of the machine. The device shown attached to the front support is the key by which the spark is thrown into the aerial and ground and the message sent. By pressing the lower lever the rocking arm above it which supports the two insulated balls is pulled upward and the latter are thrown into range of the spark from the large brass balls. One of the key balls is connected to the aerial and the other to a good ground such as a gas or water pipe. I found it best to allow the aerial ball to take its charge from the positive discharge. By pressing the key for longer or shorter intervals the dots and dashes of the code are easily obtained.

An aerial was strung on my roof at a height of 45 feet above the ground consisting of two horizontal copper wires supported on tree-top spreaders with leads of wire at the corner running to the edge of the roof where they were joined and a single wire led down to the machine on the third floor. This aerial gave a wave length of about 75 meters. Owing to the extremely high tension and insulative nature of the discharge it was necessary to insulate the wires with gutta serena which was done by supporting them in parallel glass tubes. The machine as constructed gave a solid stream of bright two-inch sparks in weather these from an induction coil when the latter is charged. The balls were used and the jars shown acted. With the latter in circuit in the usual manner a very high and powerful spark of about the same length

was obtained at intervals. With a large ball on the right hand rod and a small one on the left, a much thinner and more frequent spark from five to six inches long appeared.

The first experiments in sending messages were conducted with the receiver in a room about thirty feet away from the machine, using a gaspipe ground and



Fig. 1—GRATING WHICH GIVES THE COLOR ILLUSION

no receiving aerial. A number of detectors were constructed experimentally in testing a coherer and a coherer with a 1/2 inch gap filled with nickel silver filings a microphone consisting of a piece of hard pencil lead bridging two steel needles a bare point electrolytic and a Marconi magnetic detector. In all the tests made the coherer gave the best results at short range and the microphone the best for longer distance. Indeed the sounds were much clearer in this case than when the electrolytic was used though the latter is considered the most sensitive of all.

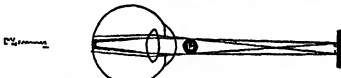


Fig. 2—DIAPHRAM EXPLAINING THE COLOR ILLUSION

In these experiments a home-made relay of 300 ohms resistance was used with the coherer and a pair of 150-ohm ear phones with the microphone. In the experiment conducted in the rear by room the straight spark from the discharge balls was used and gave clear signals. The coherer was then moved to the back yard and provided with a ten foot aerial stretched horizontally six feet above the ground the other connection being to a water pipe. The signals were still received clearly but on increasing the distance to three hundred yards no result was obtained with either receiver although the aerial was extended to a length of thirty feet.

In order to increase the power of the spark the inner coatings of the jars were connected to the discharges the outer coatings still remaining unconnected.

By this arrangement a shorter thicker and more brilliant spark was thrown into the key balls which while not as frequent as in the former case was sufficiently continuous to easily permit sending distinct dots and dashes when the machine was driven at a slightly higher speed. The microphone now responded clearly when the key was worked showing at the increase in efficiency of the new arrangement and a more ambitious experiment was decided upon. The receiving station including microphone telephone receiver tuning coil batteries, etc. was transferred to a house three-quarters of a mile away and a receiving aerial erected. As the owner of the house objected to the use of the roof for this purpose I was compelled

to put up a portable installation placed at a vertical type, projecting from a telephone pole.

Three detectors were now applied to receive the signal, and a three-foot aerial placed at the top of the pole which were projected a pair of copper wires thirty feet long. These wires were joined at the bottom and led to the tuning coil, which had a capacity of 125 meters and thence to the microphone. The distance ranged how my better half patiently worked the static machine at the sending end for fifteen minutes, sending dashes at slow speed and in groups of three, to avoid confusion and the signals were clearly but unambiguously heard in the phone at my end.

I have no doubt that with a more efficient aerial, variable condenser, high resistance lead phosphen, and potentiometer for the battery the receiving distance could be enormously increased. Possibly a fine spark gap and sending helix would be an advantage at the sending end. A multiple machine, having three or more pairs of plates would probably have sufficient capacity to rapidly charge and discharge a small pair of Leyden jars and so send greatly increased power into the aerial and increase the radius of efficiency. The details of the spark gap showing the character of the spark as given from the interiors of the jars alone as used in the foregoing experiments are shown in one of the photographs. The receiving apparatus with the exception of the tuning coil is also shown herewith.

#### A COLOR AND BLENDED ILLUSION

BY H. N. W. JARVIS

Hold a pin vertically with its pointed end between the thumb and forefinger. Place the pin thus held before your eye in contact with your eyelid. Close the other eye and look at the grating (Fig. 1) this being at a distance of about three to five inches from your eye.

Two differently colored gratings apparently placed at two different distances from the eye both of them made up of vertical lines will immediately appear. One seems to be relatively near. Its lines have a dark brownish hue. The other is made up of dark bluish bars and every one of these seems to stand at a distance behind the first grating. If the figure be moved laterally the nearby brownish lines seem to move on with the paper but the bluish bars run in the opposite direction.

The nearby brownish bars are the black stripes of the figure. In spite of the fact that the distance between the figure and the eye is shorter than that of distinct vision the stripes are not much blurred as the pin decreases the aperture of the pupil and thereby increases the depth of focus.

The faraway bluish bars are the shadows cast by the pin on the retina in the middle of every luminous beam sent by the corresponding white line. The shade is cast right side up but the image is inverted and the result is the curious inverse motion of the bluish bars when the paper or pin is made to travel laterally.

The origin of the bluish color of these bars is shown on Fig. 2.  $LL$  is the cross section of a white line. The pin  $P$  (relative size is exaggerated) closes the central part of the crystalline lens and as the accommodation of the periphery is imperfect there is a rather strong dispersion of the white light. The blue rays  $AB$  of the shaded spectrum invade the obscure central zone which is the shadow of the pin. This assumes a bluish hue. For a similar reason the less refrangible color red and yellow fall behind and remain on the image of the black stripes right and left of the white line. The admixture of colored light to the dark stripes is increased by the fact that the whole image being out of focus the limit between the black and white lines cannot be sharp.

The blue rays meet to a focus before the red and yellow rays they give therefore the impression of coming from a grayish luminous object. The contrary statement is true for the red and yellow rays. This accounts in part for the fact that the brownish bars seem to be nearer than the bluish lines.

The writer assumes however that this explanation does not entirely satisfy him.

Indemnification black ink to made from 1 part kerosene, 15 parts turpentine, 10 parts of varnish and 100 parts of alcohol.



RECEIVING APPARATUS SHOWING THE CHARACTERISTICS OF WHITE LINES









(Continued from page 36)

See special notices, P. C. L. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100, 101, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108, 109, 110, 111, 112, 113, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119, 120, 121, 122, 123, 124, 125, 126, 127, 128, 129, 130, 131, 132, 133, 134, 135, 136, 137, 138, 139, 140, 141, 142, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 148, 149, 150, 151, 152, 153, 154, 155, 156, 157, 158, 159, 160, 161, 162, 163, 164, 165, 166, 167, 168, 169, 170, 171, 172, 173, 174, 175, 176, 177, 178, 179, 180, 181, 182, 183, 184, 185, 186, 187, 188, 189, 190, 191, 192, 193, 194, 195, 196, 197, 198, 199, 200, 201, 202, 203, 204, 205, 206, 207, 208, 209, 210, 211, 212, 213, 214, 215, 216, 217, 218, 219, 220, 221, 222, 223, 224, 225, 226, 227, 228, 229, 230, 231, 232, 233, 234, 235, 236, 237, 238, 239, 240, 241, 242, 243, 244, 245, 246, 247, 248, 249, 250, 251, 252, 253, 254, 255, 256, 257, 258, 259, 260, 261, 262, 263, 264, 265, 266, 267, 268, 269, 270, 271, 272, 273, 274, 275, 276, 277, 278, 279, 280, 281, 282, 283, 284, 285, 286, 287, 288, 289, 290, 291, 292, 293, 294, 295, 296, 297, 298, 299, 300, 301, 302, 303, 304, 305, 306, 307, 308, 309, 310, 311, 312, 313, 314, 315, 316, 317, 318, 319, 320, 321, 322, 323, 324, 325, 326, 327, 328, 329, 330, 331, 332, 333, 334, 335, 336, 337, 338, 339, 340, 341, 342, 343, 344, 345, 346, 347, 348, 349, 350, 351, 352, 353, 354, 355, 356, 357, 358, 359, 360, 361, 362, 363, 364, 365, 366, 367, 368, 369, 370, 371, 372, 373, 374, 375, 376, 377, 378, 379, 380, 381, 382, 383, 384, 385, 386, 387, 388, 389, 390, 391, 392, 393, 394, 395, 396, 397, 398, 399, 400, 401, 402, 403, 404, 405, 406, 407, 408, 409, 410, 411, 412, 413, 414, 415, 416, 417, 418, 419, 420, 421, 422, 423, 424, 425, 426, 427, 428, 429, 430, 431, 432, 433, 434, 435, 436, 437, 438, 439, 440, 441, 442, 443, 444, 445, 446, 447, 448, 449, 450, 451, 452, 453, 454, 455, 456, 457, 458, 459, 460, 461, 462, 463, 464, 465, 466, 467, 468, 469, 470, 471, 472, 473, 474, 475, 476, 477, 478, 479, 480, 481, 482, 483, 484, 485, 486, 487, 488, 489, 490, 491, 492, 493, 494, 495, 496, 497, 498, 499, 500, 501, 502, 503, 504, 505, 506, 507, 508, 509, 510, 511, 512, 513, 514, 515, 516, 517, 518, 519, 520, 521, 522, 523, 524, 525, 526, 527, 528, 529, 530, 531, 532, 533, 534, 535, 536, 537, 538, 539, 540, 541, 542, 543, 544, 545, 546, 547, 548, 549, 550, 551, 552, 553, 554, 555, 556, 557, 558, 559, 560, 561, 562, 563, 564, 565, 566, 567, 568, 569, 570, 571, 572, 573, 574, 575, 576, 577, 578, 579, 580, 581, 582, 583, 584, 585, 586, 587, 588, 589, 590, 591, 592, 593, 594, 595, 596, 597, 598, 599, 600, 601, 602, 603, 604, 605, 606, 607, 608, 609, 610, 611, 612, 613, 614, 615, 616, 617, 618, 619, 620, 621, 622, 623, 624, 625, 626, 627, 628, 629, 630, 631, 632, 633, 634, 635, 636, 637, 638, 639, 640, 641, 642, 643, 644, 645, 646, 647, 648, 649, 650, 651, 652, 653, 654, 655, 656, 657, 658, 659, 660, 661, 662, 663, 664, 665, 666, 667, 668, 669, 670, 671, 672, 673, 674, 675, 676, 677, 678, 679, 680, 681, 682, 683, 684, 685, 686, 687, 688, 689, 690, 691, 692, 693, 694, 695, 696, 697, 698, 699, 700, 701, 702, 703, 704, 705, 706, 707, 708, 709, 710, 711, 712, 713, 714, 715, 716, 717, 718, 719, 720, 721, 722, 723, 724, 725, 726, 727, 728, 729, 730, 731, 732, 733, 734, 735, 736, 737, 738, 739, 740, 741, 742, 743, 744, 745, 746, 747, 748, 749, 750, 751, 752, 753, 754, 755, 756, 757, 758, 759, 760, 761, 762, 763, 764, 765, 766, 767, 768, 769, 770, 771, 772, 773, 774, 775, 776, 777, 778, 779, 780, 781, 782, 783, 784, 785, 786, 787, 788, 789, 790, 791, 792, 793, 794, 795, 796, 797, 798, 799, 800, 801, 802, 803, 804, 805, 806, 807, 808, 809, 810, 811, 812, 813, 814, 815, 816, 817, 818, 819, 820, 821, 822, 823, 824, 825, 826, 827, 828, 829, 830, 831, 832, 833, 834, 835, 836, 837, 838, 839, 840, 841, 842, 843, 844, 845, 846, 847, 848, 849, 850, 851, 852, 853, 854, 855, 856, 857, 858, 859, 860, 861, 862, 863, 864, 865, 866, 867, 868, 869, 870, 871, 872, 873, 874, 875, 876, 877, 878, 879, 880, 881, 882, 883, 884, 885, 886, 887, 888, 889, 890, 891, 892, 893, 894, 895, 896, 897, 898, 899, 900, 901, 902, 903, 904, 905, 906, 907, 908, 909, 910, 911, 912, 913, 914, 915, 916, 917, 918, 919, 920, 921, 922, 923, 924, 925, 926, 927, 928, 929, 930, 931, 932, 933, 934, 935, 936, 937, 938, 939, 940, 941, 942, 943, 944, 945, 946, 947, 948, 949, 950, 951, 952, 953, 954, 955, 956, 957, 958, 959, 960, 961, 962, 963, 964, 965, 966, 967, 968, 969, 970, 971, 972, 973, 974, 975, 976, 977, 978, 979, 980, 981, 982, 983, 984, 985, 986, 987, 988, 989, 990, 991, 992, 993, 994, 995, 996, 997, 998, 999, 1000.

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2. How to Overhaul Your Car
3. The Automobile Fire Engine  
All the latest automobile pumping engine, chemical cars, hook and ladder trucks and hose carts are described.
4. The Automobile and the Road  
The automobile has presented to the road engineer new problems for solution. He must render his roads impervious to water and protectively guard against the destructive effect of frost. The United States Government through the Office of Public Road Inquiry is now studying this subject. The article written by Mr. Page, Director of the Office of Public Road, describes what has been done.
5. Anti "Joy Rides" Demos  
This article is a complete description of devices which have been invented for the purpose of preventing chauffeurs from taking out their owners' machines.
6. The Modern Electric Automobile.
7. Making Your Own Repairs.
8. The Cars of 1910
9. Automobile Identification Chart  
Remember you have no idea what make of car was that which abandoned your driving eyes. The 1910 Automobile Number will enable you to identify any car by its radiator and engine bonnet. About thirty-five automobiles are thus illustrated for identification in a handy, artistic way.
10. The Impresario Car  
Any man with a good salary can now afford to own some kind of car. The industry has attained great prosperity and what may be supposed of them is hardly out of the way.
11. The Wonderful Rise of the Automobile Industry.
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(Continued from page 36)  
with the mineral which under the friction of the bare foot is most brilliant polish and is dangerously slippery except to the active movements of the miner.

The graphite is excavated by quality crude tools and instead of being hauled to the pit mouth by rail or cart, it is loaded into tall baskets of native cane furniture resembling small barrels is loaded on the shoulders of the native who carries it bodily up the long ladder to the pit mouth. As a result in a busy pit there is a constant endless train of ascending and descending natives bearing their baskets upward and down like flies their bodies covered with plumbago brightly polished giving them a appearance in the sunlight of moving fire now wrought in bright steel.

Should the pit become flooded a simple system is adopted. A rude conduit formed of lengths of wood placed diagonally together so as to afford a V channel is improvised which leads to a lower level a small orifice being bored through the side of the pit if necessary to secure the outflow of water. The water is carried upward with small vessels.

At one or two of the pits where the veins are abnormally thick some premature to modern mining plants having the water is removed by the aid of air pumps and the native artists are displaced by power hoisting plants having the mineral from a depth of 100 or 200 hundred feet to the surface. At Peta within the most active workings in the Potosi district such an installation has been laid down and here the prevailing conditions warrant the outlay for such machinery also one main vein striking north and south has a maximum thickness of twelve to fifteen feet.

Owing to the heavy demand for graphite that entered as a result of the South African war when \$25 per ton was realized a plumbago fever broke out among the natives. So a price induced individual working and illicit mining on crown lands. Since today the latter traffic takes place should the mineral be proved to exist on the government property licenses are duly issued by the authorities and the natives are enabled to exploit the deposits but the natives resort to poaching.

The graphite as it is mined is taken to the cleaning and grading works. It is first submitted to a preliminary hand selection all the large pieces which are for the most part pure graphite or are associated with pyrites and arsenic being placed on one side. The siliceous or pyritic screens of varying mesh stretched on wooden frames inclined at an angle over which the mineral is emptied from small shallow baskets and then rubbed by hand the larger or coarse pieces falling to the base of the screen while the minute particles pass through the mesh. This process is repeated several times work being commenced first on the small meshed screens. In this manner the dust and much of the friable loose work is separated. This phase of the work is carried out by women and children.

Grinding comprised the graphite then undergoes levelling. The product being brought in from various localities is made associated with other matter as it is in ironstone or carbonaceous deposits of various descriptions and this deleterious material is removed by hand. This operation also serves to separate the min from the heavy impurities. The market price of white average from \$175 to \$250 per ton for the first and from \$10 to \$125 per ton for the second grade.

The industry has attained great prosperity upward of 30,000 natives being employed in the mining of the article the value of which production considerably exceeds \$5,000,000 per annum. The industry is also for the greater part in the hands of the natives many of whom have amassed considerable fortunes since owing to the cheapness of the labor, sample supplies of which are readily available.

(Continued on page 38)









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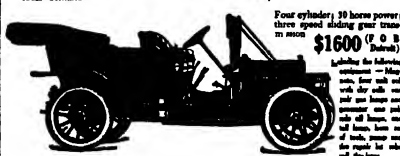
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# Everyman's Car at Last

## 1910 BRUSH \$485<sup>00</sup>



RUMBLE SEAT AND TOOL BOX \$20.00 EXTRA

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Physicians  
Salesmen  
Corporations  
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### The Young Folks—

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THE MACHINERY-DESK OF THE MODERN FARMER.—[See page 50.]

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NEW YORK, SATURDAY, JANUARY 15th, 1910

**THE 1910 AUTOMOBILE**

CONVINCING evidence that the automobile of today is as far perfected as the materials of construction and mechanical ingenuity will allow, is afforded by the fact that the automobile of the present year exhibits no novelties of a radical character as compared with the cars of the preceding year. Indeed, were it not for the relatively short life and high cost of the automobile, the industry would surely be entitled to rank as the most conservative of all in the transportation of the present day. As to whether some cheaper and more durable substitute, having the same resiliency as rubber, will be found during the next year, that is a question that cannot be predicted at present, so far as we know, any promise that such a substance will be produced. At the same time, the development of the car has been along lines that are highly favorable to the life of the tire, for both the tire and the car are made of the same material. Moreover, the average owner is beginning to understand that the exercise of discretion in the use of the brake, in avoiding rough places on the road and in slowing down at the approach of a sharp curve, will add five to ten per cent to the life of the tire.

The tendency toward standardization is even more marked this year than last, and the freak car is conspicuous by its absence. The predominance of the four-cylinder motor would indicate that this is to be the prevailing type of the future. The six-cylinder motor is being made, but in spite of its acknowledged advantages of more even torque etc., it is mainly confined in expensive cars of high power. An encouraging feature, based upon thoroughly sound mechanics, is the increased length of stroke, two of the leading makers exhibiting 36-horse-power cars with cylinders  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches by 5 inches stroke and  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches by 5 inches stroke respectively.

Indoubtedly, the present good state of prosperity in the automobile industry is due largely to the fact that a multitude of people of good mechanical sense, who have been working in the industry for many years, are embodying the latest improvements as well as the best of what is known in the world. The new cars are better, better at a low price, is now being accommodated. Several makers are offering a four-cylinder 20-horsepower car for \$1,000. This is a very low price for a car of this class, and it is due to the fact that the makers are able to control the cost of the more costly designs for the low price of the \$1,000 cars of this type have proved during the past year that with judicious handling they are perfectly capable of doing the work of a six-cylinder car. For all cars the four-cylinder, four-cycle engine, with variations in the valve arrangement, is still the latest and best. The various builders have become the standard type, and the indications are that ultimately the cylinders and valves will be arranged in a standard manner. The given place to ball-bearing mounted bearings of modified design, although a few first class makers are using a ball-bearing with an outer rotating ball, for axle bearings, although a few still use the balls, the roller bearings are becoming more and more popular. The roller bearings are becoming more and more popular.

There is a practically universal use of high-tension ignition. All machines down to the lowest priced are magnetos with either a four-cylinder coil and distributor as auxiliary or a dual system of ignition. The latter drive is in almost exclusive use, the chain being retained only on very large cars. The transmission of the exception on the smallest cars, is almost invariably of the sliding and selective type, with three speeds ahead and one reverse and the excellent results obtained by those firms which have placed the transmission on the rear axle are bringing this arrangement

Lubrication is effected mainly by two systems, one

employing "splash" lubrication, in which the cranks pass through a bath of oil contained in the bottom of the crank case, and the other employing a trough and pump, which causes a constant and positive circulation through every bearing. Outside of a tendency to enlarge the size there are no notable changes in the valve mechanism of American cars, and it is rather remarkable that, in spite of the increased use which is being made abroad of the slide valve (a distinctly American invention), there seems to be no disposition to develop this type in the land of its birth.

Although the multiple-disk clutch bids fair to become the exclusive type abroad, the familiar, leather-covered cone clutch has rendered such excellent service on American machines that it still holds its own, and this in spite of the fact that the multiple-disk type has been giving good results on such American cars as carry them.

In the manufacture of car bodies, there is a marked tendency toward the adoption of straight line designs. Recent stylish-looking cars, both of medium and high power, are shown with the much-balked-of torpedo shape, the front end being rounded off smoothly and firmly inclined, the cars being provided with side curtains, pushed as well as behind. The provision of doors that open toward the front instead of toward the rear is commendable, both from the standpoint of convenience and safety. An additional advantage of the torpedoes is that they are free from the protruding bumpers against the rush of air, particularly on high-speed cars. A notable tendency of the times is the growing popularity of wind shields and "tops," the appreciation of the former being due largely to the general objection to wearing goggles. The use of tops tends to make the motorist comparatively independent of the weather, and thus unquestionably adds to the utmost comfort of touring.

The question of the relative advantages of the right-hand and left-hand drive is coming to the front, and some makers are offering cars with steering wheels placed at the left of the car. Unquestionably the right-hand position is preferable in those foreign countries where the rule of the road in meeting and passing is the opposite of our own. There, in meeting a car one passes to the left, and the driver, if seated on the right of the car, is in a favorable position for judging of the necessary clearance. In this country, where the rule of the road is reversed, it would seem logical also to reverse also the position of the driver.

The handsome display of motor trucks there perhaps has the most notable feature of this year's exhibition, the variety of types for which manufacturers are building motor vehicles being shown at the Grand Central Plaza. In quality of design and workmanship, and in the variety of types for which manufacturers are building, the motor trucks shown are favorable to the work built in the other automobile exhibits, and as one passed from one to another of those powerful machines, the impression was that the American industry was and great capacity the impression became stronger that at length after many years of discouragement, the statistics of the trade bear out this conviction, for it is well-nigh certain that during the coming year about fifty per cent of the motor trucks will be built in this country alone. This gratifying result is the outcome of several years of careful experimental work, in which the American manufacturers have shown their ability, and the big breeding concerns have been trying out various designs of vehicles under widely different conditions of traffic, both in the city and on the highway. The fact that the American motor trucks have faith in the future of the industry is proved by the fact that, in several cases, they are considerably enlarging their plants to meet the demand for their products, and are turning out five thousand in the West, in a position to turn out five thousand motor vehicles for commercial use.

**IMPROVED QUALITY VERSUS PRICE REDUCTION**  
FIVE years ago or more, when a man paid \$5,000 or \$2,500 for a touring car, or \$650 to \$1,100 for a runabout, he reluctantly expected to get much in the way of reliability and durability—or, if he did not, in the end he was bound to anticipate, he was sure to be disappointed before he had used the car many days. The narrative of an automobile run in those days was usually a recital of a series of troubles of various sorts, chiefly with tires, carburetor, and ignition, but also frequently with breakages and imperfect functioning of valve mechanism, shafts, gears, chains, and even steering knuckles, driving axle, and other vital parts.

Conditions are very different in the present state of automobile development, when it becomes a matter of surprise to even well-posted observers that eight out of thirty cars taking part in the Gildden tour of 1909 should finish an arduous trip of 2,840 miles run between Detroit, Chicago, Minneapolis, St. Louis, Denver, and Kansas City in fifteen days at an average speed of twenty miles an hour during the daylight running periods, without suffering a single involuntary stop.

for repairs, or for adjustments of any sort, on the way except to brakes, carburetor, and ignition systems, and tires. Considering the road and weather conditions under which the work was done and the lack of daily inspection, cleaning, and adjusting, (this probably represents a higher degree of efficiency and performance than can be shown for any other mechanical construction.

The wonderful improvements in motor-car quality made evident by the results of this test and by the fact that the new cars are being sold at the same today with those of machines selling at about the same prices in the early part of the decade now drawing to a close, is due to a number of contributing factors. First, the automobile designer has made use of special grades of steel, bronze, aluminum, and babbit having certain definite physical properties suited particularly to the requirements in different parts of the machine. Second, the automobile designer class or even reasonably satisfactory motor cars in this country was practically impossible until the then small group of experimenters and builders were able to produce a motor car of the type now being sold in billions of the automobile industry, and thereby induce the mass production of nickel steel and chrome steel. Third, the automobile designer has used shafts, driving shafts, connecting rods, steering gears, steering knuckles, and similar parts, and of manganese bronze, phosphor bronze, and various other alloys. Fourth, the automobile designer has used steering-gear housings and similar parts demanding great stiffness combined with light weight. The automobile industry is very largely responsible for the heat treatment, annealing and oil tempering, and for the introduction of the special tool steels required for the production of the automobile.

Before the special alloy steels were brought out, the motor-car manufacturers nearly reached the end of their rope in the quest for stronger materials of satisfactory power and weight without excessive weight. The transformation that has been wrought here can be better comprehended when it is shown that it can be better accomplished than by the use of iron or vanadium-chrome steel to show a tensile strength of more than 50,000 pounds per square inch as compared with 50,000 pounds tensile strength of fibrous iron or of ordinary mild steel.

The new alloy steels are being used extensively employed for certain purposes in automobiles. That is a bar of the alloy steel one inch square is capable of supporting a load of 50,000 pounds.

The qualities most sought in metals for eliding gear crankshafts, camshafts, driving and differential pinions and gears and live rear axles are elasticity to resist wear, and ductility to bend under heavy shock instead of snapping. But ductility must be subordinate to strength. A metal which bends too easily will not stand up under the repeated shocks and stresses, and throw the

As a result of the employment of steel of such wonderful strength in the sliding-gear sets, by way of illustration, it is now possible to transmit the 45 and 60 horsepower of the modern touring car with smaller gears than were required for the 15 and 20 horsepower five years ago, and that with much greater certainty against breakage and the practical elimination of the mangling of the ends of the teeth by mauling or crushing down to contact surfaces. By the use of steel of such strength as a part of the machine that must sustain heavy torsional stresses, frequent and heavy impact, or much friction, the designer has been enabled to keep down the weights of the gears, and to transmit with ease and efficiency the power of the engine to the wheels of the machine as a whole. This accounts for the greater speed, power, quick acceleration, perfect maneuverability, and the dependability and durability of the cars of today weighing little if any more than machines of five years ago. The fact that the modern touring car, built today, is built on a five-year-old design, is a

All this improvement in quality, plus infinitely more grace in general lines and in comfort to the passengers, and a complete equipment of folding top, wind shield, head lights, magneto, and other expensive fittings, is offered to the buyer almost at no advance in cost over the ungainly, uncomfortable, and poorly-equipped cars of six and seven years ago.

The high stam shovel record for August on the Panama Canal excavation was made by a shovel working in the Oubiera District, which excavated 12,832 cubic yards of earth in twenty-six working days. A shovel working eight days in the Oubiera District and sixteen days in the Empire District excavated 17,148 and 26,118 cubic yards, respectively. A total of 16,529 cubic yards, the second best record for the month, was third shovel in the Oubiera District while the high record for one day by excavating 3,467 cubic yards of rock and earth.

## ENGINEERING.

The *Zungsten* railway, which has formed the subject of illustration in this journal, is making steady progress. About 180 men are engaged on the tunnel between Blomster station, 10,248 feet, and the Zungsten Jock, 11,000 feet above the sea level. The present indications are that the road will be completed toward the close of next year.

At the last meeting of the American Society of Naval Architects and Marine Engineers, in a paper on "Applications of Electricity to the Propulsion of Naval Vessels," Mr. W. L. B. Emmet estimated the efficiency of the turbo-electric installation at 93 per cent, and he, at least, is of the opinion that no other form of speed reduction between turbine and propeller can be made to show equal efficiency.

In a recent article in one of the magazines, Admiral Evans takes a rather pessimistic view of the future of the Panama Canal. He does not hold little revenue in prospect, and apparently he holds the view that, unless the canal be declared free to all navigation, it will succeed in attracting but a limited amount of shipping. He seems to be of the opinion that it cannot possibly charge a sufficient toll, at least during the early years of its operation, to pay the heavy fixed and operating charges.

A price of \$5,000 has been offered in England for a twenty-four-hour aeroplane motor. In weight the engine must not exceed 240 pounds, and it must develop not less than 30 brake-horsepower. The points to be considered in making the award will be weight, fuel consumption, reliability, ease of working parts, security against fire, and minimum air resistance. The conditions are severe, but unquestionably the motor is the weak point in the aeroplane at the present stage of its development.

Emphatic testimony to the ability of reinforced concrete to resist earthquake shock is given by the experts who were sent by the Japanese to Messina. The buildings that had been constructed of unadorned concrete, according to Prof. Amari, proved to be highly resistant, and much significance was attached to the case of two reservoirs of considerable size, one of brick and the other of reinforced concrete. The concrete structure revealed no cracks, whereas the brick reservoir was completely destroyed.

Recently gathered steam turbine statistics, referring to the growth of this new type of engine in public favor, show that during two years, out of 162 power plants with turbines as recently as 1901 there are now sixty-four vessels carrying this equipment, the aggregate horsepower represented being 503,200. It is estimated that between 1901 and 1909, which can be used with the turbine, no less than 120 tons of weight was saved in the boiler room of the largest of the turbine-propelled liners.

Statistics published by the Interstate Commerce Commission show that during two years, out of 162 preventable collisions and derailments, twenty-one of the accidents were due to the failure of the locomotive engineers to observe the signals. Evidently the human element enters largely into the question of the efficiency of block signaling. In view of this fact, it is encouraging to note the steady growth of automatic stop devices which, in case of failure of the engineer to obey a signal, will open the train pipe and set the brakes.

With a view to guarding the safety of passengers and preserving the life of rails and rolling stock, the Chicago, Milwaukee, and Puget Sound Railway will refrain from running loaded trains over the new roadbed until it has had time to become thoroughly compacted and a reasonable amount of stone or gravel ballast has been tamped beneath the ties. It takes some time for embankments to settle into their proper place, and apart from the risks of operation, the running of fast heavy trains over new track entails costly work in renewals and repairs.

Any one who has witnessed the appearance of the Niagara Falls before the present power installations were built and opened, can settle the question as to whether the appearance of the falls has been affected, by the simple expedient of looking at the falls for himself. Small though the total amount of water taken for power purposes, in proportion to the total amount passing over the falls, may be, it has been sufficient to cause the shallowest portions of the falls at the edges of the falls to become entirely dry, thereby greatly reducing the total length of the crest line.

During the last month of 1909, electric service was inaugurated on the newly electrified portion of the London, Brighton and South Coast Railway system, the particular portion placed in such service being known as the South London line, which extends nine miles from Victoria to London Bridge. Formerly the running time of this line was thirty minutes; now it is twenty-five minutes, and trains run at ten-minute intervals. Operation is by the overhead alternating-current trolley, and the motor cars are each fitted with four 120-horsepower single-phase motors.

## ELECTRICAL.

A recent press report states that a chain of wireless stations is to be established by the British Admiralty in the Pacific Ocean. High-powered stations will be placed at Sydney, Dominion Bay, New Zealand, Suva, the capital of the Fiji group, and Oahu Island with medium-powered stations in the New Hebrides and Solomon Islands.

A new device for connecting wires has just been put out on the market. It consists of a sleeve adapted to fit over the wires, which is filled with a regulative amount of solder. The sleeve is furnished with material which when ignited produces sufficient heat to melt the solder. The wires are then jammed together within the sleeve and firmly secured. In this position the solder will quiver no torch or soldering iron, as the inflammable material can be ignited with a match. The advantage of such a system of connecting wires will be appreciated by those who have tried to solder joints on overhead lines.

The voltage on power transmission lines has been rapidly increasing, and at such a pace as to almost take one's breath away. This development has required a similar advance in the design of transformers capable of taking the high-tension current and reducing it to a lower and more serviceable voltage at the points of distribution. The latest transformers of the Westinghouse Company have a capacity of 10,000 kva. and are capable of taking a maximum voltage of 135,000 and reducing it to 12,100. These transformers have been built for the Hawaiian Power Company of California. Each transformer will weigh about 100 tons, will stand 17 feet high, and occupy a floor space of 34 by 64 feet.

For the past three years meat has been cured by electricity in much less time than was required by the old method. The meat is placed in large wooden tanks and covered with the ordinary pickle. An alternating current of 35 amperes at 55 volts is passed through the vat, the alterations resulting in prompt electrochemical action. Carbon electrodes are used, which are surrounded by porous cups that dip into the brine. The cost of curing a full vat of meat (four thousand pounds) is less than one dollar. The action of the current is not perfectly understood, but it appears to drive the pickle into the meat and hasten the cure. It also appears to preserve the pickle and prevent its deterioration, except for the loss of in accordance with the law of Ohm.

According to La Lanthierre Electric, a new microphone has been constructed by Henry Carl Finner and J. Kanner, of Holmstrom, Sweden, which will withstand a current ten to fifteen amperes. The details of the instrument are not given out, owing to the fact that it has not yet been protected by patent. The Swedish government recently connected several telephone lines, forming a line nearly sixteen hundred miles long, and the microphone transmitted speech very clearly over this circuit, whereas with the ordinary apparatus no audible sounds were produced. The new transmitter is being used in the Swedish wireless telephone system and it is claimed that construction has been carried on over a distance of 170 miles, using a high frequency current of six amperes.

The Navy Department is giving its earnest support to the bill introduced by Mr. Roberts, who is a member of the House Committee on Naval Affairs, to control amateur wireless telegraphy. Mr. Roberts's measure is for a board consisting of seven members, one expert each from the Navy, War, and Treasury departments, three experts representing commercial wireless telegraph and telephone interests, and one expert who is to be named in wireless telegraphy and telephony. It is proposed that the operations of the amateur telegraphers be confined to certain hours of the day, and that each operator be required to take out a license. The Navy Department has recently forwarded to Mr. Roberts extracts from the logs of revenue cutters, showing some of the difficulties with which naval wireless operators have to contend.

With characteristic thoroughness the Prussian Government Railways have been investigating the best method of insulating the rails of the electric system and of the overhead system. About 30 miles from Berlin is an oval shaped experimental railway of about a mile in length. Part of the roadbed consists of wooden ties, and the other part of metal ties. Various kinds of insulation are used, and various methods of connecting the rails and ties. Over this experimental railway an electric train is operated every weekday for about twenty hours of the week, and in this way it is the best method of determining which form of roadbed will best stand the wear of actual service. The overhead system has been changed from time to time, and different forms of collectors have been used. At present the American type is in use, being driven by Winter-Ellberg single-phase motors geared to the wheels. The company expects soon to use motors mounted on the floor of the locomotive, and switch-connected to the driving wheels.

## SCIENCE.

A moving picture opera was taken up by Latham recently on a seven-minute trip, at an elevation of eighty feet from the ground. He took pictures with the lens pointing downward. The apparatus weighed 300 pounds, and the camera 100.

There seems to be some evidence that planetary oscillations of the earth's crust increase with time in a strong barometric gradient, without any relation to the wind. The phenomenon has been investigated by two Japanese scientists, one of whom, Omori, has shown that the earth's oscillations are due to changes in the pressure upon the earth's crust caused by barometric changes or by accompanying changes in the wind level, and not due to the wind itself. Omori, from the south, finally passing off to the northeast. He obtained records of junctures with components of .006 and .007. Other cases also support Omori's view.

The blanket effect of clouds, their power of conveying terrestrial temperatures, is discussed by Mr. W. W. Cobbett in a recent number of the Monthly Weather Review. He says that this blanket effect of clouds is due to their high sensitivity for radiation, and that the earth and hence to their high efficiency as heat radiators. A "black body" should have no reflecting power and be perfectly black. Water radiates from 2 to 5 per cent of the waves received, and a layer 1 centimeter thick absorbs completely all radiation of wave length greater than 1.5 in the infrared. The earth's maximum emission lies in the region of A, and less than 1 millimeter thickness of water is required to produce complete opacity in that region. Owing to the opacity there is little internal radiation of heat waves in the water column.

The treading of linen may have a greater effect than is expected of it. As the temperature of the iron may greatly exceed 250 deg. F. It has been suggested that the process of ironing may suffice to sterilize surgical dressings and bandages, and to destroy bacteria in rural districts and elsewhere in the home, especially in the case of infecting ovens and stoves. Nearly all microbes are killed by a sufficiently long application of a temperature near to that of boiling water. A temperature of 160 deg. F. is required to kill certain spores of bacteria and to produce absolutely complete sterilization. It has been proved by experiment that it is possible to destroy clothing by means of a steam ironing cloth which had been worn by children in the case of diphtheria, and which contained bacteria of pus, diphtheria, etc. was sprinkled and ironed. It was then rubbed on a piece of linen and prepared for the culture of bacteria, but not a single colony was developed.

Prof. Joly has studied the radioactive properties of many lavas, especially those of Vesuvius. From his results it is evident that the radioactivity of 1831 to the present day, are remarkably rich in radium compared with other lavas, the values ranging up to three times the normal for igneous rocks, and sometimes even higher than that. The thorium content, although large in comparison with what generally prevails in the rocks of the St. Gothard range, is not so conspicuously higher in the Vesuvius rocks than in the rocks from other volcanoes. The highest reading was obtained from the Krakatau pumice. The Vesuvius lavas appear to show a progressive increase of radioactivity according as they are of more recent eruption, which would tend to indicate that the volcanic lavas are tapping materials richer and richer in radium. Prof. Joly has also discussed the possibility of a connection between radioactivity and volcanic activity.

Not so long ago Prof. Turner proved that gold leaf becomes transparent when heated in contact with glass. This interesting phenomenon has been further shown by Messrs. G. F. Chapman and H. L. Porter without the use of glass. In their experiments a piece of gold leaf was held by its edges to a platinum loop and heated in a double-walled quartz crucible. As heating continued it was noticed that the gold leaf was becoming more and more transparent, and that the color grew so great that the leaf tore in pieces. Heated at a sufficiently high temperature gold leaf contracts. On examining it microscopically after removal from the furnace appeared a network of fine granular. Subsequent experiments with the leaf hanging like a blind with a weight at the bottom to put it under tension showed that as the temperature rose the membrane of the leaf took place at different rates with increase in temperature. When great tensions were employed, the contraction temperature was nearly the same in all, and was about 340 deg. F. With gold leaf of less than the contraction temperature. The extra transparency when the leaf is heated in contact with glass is attributed to this contraction it being shown that the leaf tears on contraction at numerous places, leaving clear intervals between.

# THE MOTOR CAR AND THE ROAD. THE DESTRUCTIVE EFFECT OF HIGH SPEED.

BY LOGAN WALLER PAGE.

DIRECTOR OF THE OFFICE OF PUBLIC ROADS, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

The most serious and difficult problem now engaging the attention of highway engineers all over the world is the preservation of the crushed stone roads under the destructive action of motor vehicles, and the devising of new methods of construction adapted to the requirements of this twentieth century traffic. That the automobile has come to stay no one will dispute. It is estimated that there are already about 250,000 machines owned in the United States, and the number is

and the iron-tired wheels passing over the road from time to time were expended upon to wear off a sufficient amount of rock dust to replace that carried away by wind and water, and this, under the action of moisture, recomacted, thereby automatically renewing the bond of the road surface. When the road was subjected to drought, the conditions were made normal by regular sprinkling. With the advent of the automobile, a totally new condition prevails. The rubber-

the effect were produced by suction or vacuum, the action of both front and rear wheels should be somewhat similar at least. It seems apparent to the writer, therefore, that the road best adapted to motor traffic is the road which will best resist this powerful tractive shear. It has already been demonstrated that no plain macadam road is capable of resisting this force.

While the destruction of the road may be considered as the most tangible and serious problem, the dust



Twenty miles an hour.



Thirty miles an hour.



Eighty miles an hour.

## THE DUST-RAISING EFFECT OF AN AUTOMOBILE TRAVELING ON AN ORDINARY MACADAM ROAD AT DIFFERENT SPEEDS.

increasing at a marvelous rate. In France, which is credited with having the most superb system of roads in the world, built at a cost of about \$425,000,000, a great international Road Congress was sanctioned by the French government and held at Paris in October, 1908. So alarming were the ravages caused by motor traffic on the costly French road system that the purpose of the meeting was announced to be "The Adaptation of Roads to Modern Methods of Locomotion." In the United States, the problem as yet is a vital one only near the great centers of population, for the reason that but a small percentage of the total mileage of roads is improved, and the motor traffic is largely confined to small areas of country, but it will of necessity become increasingly important with the constantly increasing use of the automobile.

The fact that most give us concern is that the old methods of construction which have stood every test for more than a hundred years are inadequate to meet the conditions of this new form of traffic, and that we are in the midst of a transition period which may eventually revolutionize the science and art of the road builder. The highway engineer of today is called upon to ascertain in what way the automobile injures the road what is the exact cause of the injury, and finally to devise an adequate remedy.

When Trécaquet, the great French engineer, made his report to the Council of Bridges and Roads in 1770, he set forth the principles of construction which, as modified and added to by John L. Macadam in the early part of the nineteenth century, have proven adequate until the twentieth century. These great road builders and their successors sought to secure a road capable of withstanding the wear of iron-tired horse-drawn vehicles, for the motor-driven vehicle had no place in their philosophy. They worked upon the theory that the dust abraded from the crushed stone would fill the voids between the angular fragments and when set would serve as a cement, thereby making the road surface practically a monolith. The iron-shod horse-

tired wheels moving at excessive speed fall to produce any new dust from the rock, but the tremendous shearing effect of the driving wheels forces the loose dust on the road into the air in great clouds, and, as the body of the machine displaces a large volume of air, the deflected currents carry the rock dust off the road, thereby effecting a permanent loss of the all-essential binder. It follows that the road is soon stripped of its fine binding material, and the upper or wearing course of the stone is exposed. These stones, robbed of the binding material, are soon loosened by the great shear of the driving wheels, leaving the road badly ravaged or disintegrated. It is, of course, apparent that the effects described are greatly intensified on curves where skidding is most frequent.

Highway and mechanical engineers have given much study to the action of the automobile on the road surface, and many ingenious theories have been advanced. While it is true that the slipping of the tire, the skidding, the shape of the car body, and the suction of the pneumatic tire all contribute to produce the effect, the most conclusive experiments seem to warrant the assertion that the great tractive force or shear exerted by the driving wheels of motor cars is the main factor of injury. A series of tests conducted by the United States Office of Public Roads in 1908 produced some interesting results along this line. Cars of various weights and types were run over a measured course at different rates of speed and right-angle photographs taken of each run. A 60-horse-power car stripped for racing, weighing with driver and mechanic about 2,800 pounds, was driven over a stretch of road first at five miles an hour, each run being increased at the rate of five miles an hour until a speed of 80 miles was attained. Up to 30 miles an hour little or no effect was produced on the road, but from 30 miles on the effect was striking with each increase in speed. Little or no effect is produced by the front wheels. Practically the entire disturbance of the road is produced by the rear or driving wheels. If

nulience as intensified by motor traffic is most far-reaching in its indirect effects. It has been claimed that nine-tenths of the dust produced by man comes from streets and highways and someone has very aptly termed the public road the "national dust factory." The effect of the huge clouds of dust upon health must be very great, as most forms of disease are transmitted by this germ-laden dust. The damage to crops growing adjacent to the public highway through the dust nuisance is real and tangible, and particularly is this true of small fruits. So extreme has this condition become in certain districts that not infrequently it is made to raise fruit near dusty roads. Its effect upon some classes of live stock is most severe, cattle and horses in particular being susceptible to the germs of tuberculosis carried by the dust. The automobile cannot be held responsible for these forms of damage, but it has undoubtedly intensified them. The road builder is, therefore, called upon in many cases to mitigate the dust nuisance by devising a form of treatment which might be considered a palliative.

The efforts of progressive highway engineers are directed, therefore, primarily toward the preservation of our stone-surfaced roads and the construction of dustless roads, and secondly to maintaining or mitigating the dust nuisance. The results so far accomplished have been for the most part experimental, and but little attention has been given to the actual composition and characteristics of the materials employed.

It is evident from even the slightest consideration of the subject that the solution of the problem must come, for the most part, from the highway engineer rather than the automobile manufacturer and the legislator. Manufacturers have, to some extent, tried to reduce the dust-raising tendency of their machines by various mechanical devices. Experiments in England brought out the fact that cars fitted with bodies having either very great or very slight clearance raised less dust than those with an average clearance. Some novel devices were tried with more or less success, the



SPRINKLING TAIL OF A ROAD AT SHARP CURVE, THEN.



WAGON FOR FURNISHING RUBBER INTO A ROAD.



SPRINKLING TAIL OF A ROAD AT SHARP CURVE, THEN.

best results being obtained from a car with a flat steel bottom overlapping the sides of the car, and shoes instead of mud guards. The under screen was six inches from the ground and projected beyond the radiator in front to catch deflected wind from the face of the car and pass it between the screen and the car, instead of between the car and the road. It is an evident fact that the greater the speed the greater the amount of dust, and the greater the damage to the road. Steps have already been taken to combat the speed mania by the enactment of the most stringent speed regulations. Much difficulty is found, however, in enforcing these regulations.

The experiments conducted by highway engineers, particularly in France, England, and the United States, have been directed toward providing a stone-surfaced road with



CONSTRUCTION OF BITUMINOUS MACADAM ROAD BY PENETRATION OR GROUTING METHOD. KRAVY TAR IS APPLIED ON THE TOP COURSE OF STONE

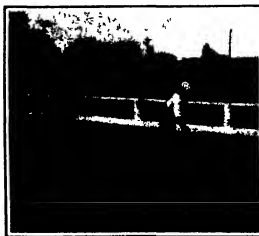
a binder more powerful than the rock dust. For the purpose of presenting intelligently the experiments thus far conducted with special binders, the term "dust preventives" has been applied to all of the various binders having for their object either the suppression or the prevention of dust. These may be divided into two classes, temporary and permanent. The temporary binders serve merely as palliatives and require frequent renewal, the permanent binders, so called, enter into the structure of the road as a constituent element, and are either incorporated with the other materials at the time of the construction or applied later by a surface treatment.

In the case of temporary binders may be included water, salt solutions, light oils and tars, and oil and tar emulsions, while the

(Continued on page 17.)



MIXING A BATCH OF MATERIAL OFF THE ROAD BY HAND MACHINE.



BITUMINOUS BINDER APPLIED WITH BROOMS FROM STEEL WHEELBARROWS.



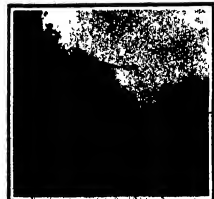
TARRED STONE DELIVERED ON THE ROAD ON PREVIOUSLY COATED WORK



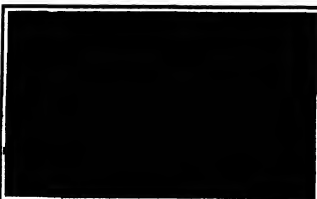
HAND MIXING OF BITUMINOUS BINDER ON THE ROAD.



SMITH CONCRETE MIXER USED FOR MIXING ROAD-MAKING MATERIAL.



AN OLIVE LEMON ROAD AT WHEATSTOWN, ALA.



APPLYING SPECIAL TAR BINDER AT WESTWOOD, MASS.



MACADAM COURSE BEFORE ROLLING



MIXING THE COMPOSITION OF A "BINDER" WITH OILS AND TAR. THE STONE OF THE ROAD SURFACE IS DUSTED WITH AN OILY GRAIN HAY TO ADHERE.



ROAD IN FAIRMONT PARK, PHILADELPHIA, AFTER BEING RESTRICTED TO SPEEDING AUTOMOBILES.



APPLYING A FINAL COAT OF TAR TO A ROAD BUILT ESPECIALLY FOR HIGH-SPEED AUTOMOBILE TRAFFIC.





## MOTOR BALLOON GUNS.

### AUTOMOBILE VS. AIRSHIP



It is to their credit that the manufacturers of artillery should even now have grappled with the new problem presented by the development of successful aeroplanes and dirigible balloons and so quickly have designed special ordnance to meet the new form of warfare. The firm which has been most active in this direction is the great Krupp Company, in having brought out several types of gun, capable of firing at the high angles which will be necessary in order to hit the rapidly moving airships and planes of the future. Because of the extreme mobility of the new method of attack from the air, it is obviously necessary that the means adopted to resist it shall be capable of a corresponding mobility. This is especially true where the warfare is likely to be carried on against more or less rapidly moving bodies of troops.

Now the automobile because of its speed, weight, and strength, is particularly adapted, not only for carrying light automatic guns but for affording a platform from which they may be fired with a reasonable degree of accuracy. Indeed the artillery motor car is contemplated and carrying a gun that is locked firmly to its chassis, is the natural counterpart of the familiar armored train running on the rails of the regular steam railroad. And although the military automobile will be largely restricted to the main, and will leave them only under exceptional conditions of smooth and fairly level country, the automobile balloon gun will find a field of usefulness in future campaigns whose limits can only be determined by the hard experience of a regular campaign.

Of the three rapid-fire gun motors cars herewith shown, one is American and the other two are of German make. One of our illustrations shows a rapid fire balloon gun, mounted on an armored motor car of 60 horse-power. The latter, in spite of its weight of three and a quarter tons, is capable of making a speed of 40 kilometers per hour and mounting, grade of 22 per cent, even when the roads are of poor quality. The gun is also shown mounted on a semi-armored car. This effective weapon has a muzzle energy of 24.8 meter tons and an extreme range at an angle of 45 degrees of 7,800 meters. At the maximum elevation of the gun, the shell has a maximum height of trajectory of 1,800 meters.

The armoring of the motor car consists of nickel steel plates, 3 millimeters in thickness, and the gun itself is provided with a special shield capable of a wide arc of aiming. The wheels, also, are covered with nickel steel plating. The ammunition is carried in a box underneath the back seat, and it will be noted that the front of the car is provided with side riders.

The guns are provided with shells of a special design, suitable for attacking an aeroplane. To assist in tracing the flight of the shells, they are furnished, at the base, with a smoke-producing substance which is ignited at the

instant of firing the gun, and emits a distinct trail of smoke during the flight of the shell. This gives the gunner some indication of the error in his sighting.

But it will be a very difficult matter to score upon a fast flying machine speeding into-shore above the earth. The most promising form of attack is with the aerosol, which, if burst at the right distance in front of the object, will envelop it in a perfect spray of jagged shell fragments.

Another illustration shows the McClean-Linsack automatic rapid-fire gun, as mounted on a 4-ton Packard

ing, for that State will make 115,000 of the total production of 302,000 cars scheduled for 1910. Four other States adjoining will contribute 70,075 machines. The Middle West may therefore be said to be the real home of the automobile industry. Illinois is scheduled to make 15,500 cars in 1910, Indiana, 31,055 cars, Ohio, 23,750, and Wisconsin, 11,000. In the East, Connecticut will make 3,100 cars, Massachusetts, 4,100 cars, New York, 10,000 cars, Pennsylvania, 2,300 cars, and Rhode Island 800 cars.

These figures are taken from statistics obtainable in connection with eighty of the prominent automobile companies, and are startling to say the least, both as to their bearing on the location of the motor car industry, and on the importance of the automobile industry as a whole. In addition, it must be remembered that there are fifty other firms making 100 cars or less, with 160 makers turning out a few cars or experimenting.

Just why the middle West should lead in motor car manufacture is worthy of some consideration, especially when it is remembered that much of the early experimenting in motor cars and early manufacturing was done at plants in Buffalo and Tarrytown, N. Y., Hartford, Conn., Philadelphia, Pa., and other Eastern States. Because of the tremendous growth of the industry in the past ten years, and the amount of capital invested, and of people employed, the settlement of an industry like that of automobile making in any particular section of the country, is a condition worthy of thought.

The middle West may be said to be in the center of the situation, not alone in the matter of cars, but in the making of tires, parts, and accessories. For this condition, we must first give credit to the industrial enterprise of the middle West, for the securing of big factories, for the enterprising methods of its boards of trade, and for the readiness to contribute money toward the securing of new industrial enterprises, like that of motor-car building. Next must be considered the labor situation, which is excellent in the middle West, especially in the matter of hands for automobile machinery. Most of the big machinery making companies are in Ohio or Indiana, where machinery of excellent character are to be had in large numbers.

Decide being the center of the machinery trade, the middle West has been the headquarters for raw material to a very large extent, at least after it has been put through its first or second process, as in the case of rubber, steel, leather, wood, brass, and other things used in the modern motor car.

More important than all is the fact that the middle West is the center for transportation, a most important item when the matter of freight on automobiles is considered. Because of their high value, automobiles contribute very heavily to the railroads, and the matter of freight on incoming material on outgoing cars for an entire thousand miles or so, means an added cost which every manufacturer tries to avoid. While it is true (Continued on page 49)



HEAVY MCGLEAN-LINSACK AUTOMATIC GUN MOUNTED ON A PACKARD 5-TON TANK.

truck, for tests which were carried out last year at Cleveland, Ohio. Lieut.-Col. O. W. Linsack, of the Ordnance Department of the United States Army, and Dr. S. W. McClean, designer of the gun, had charge of the tests, being assisted by the Standard Automobile Company, the Cleveland dealer for Packard motor cars and trucks.

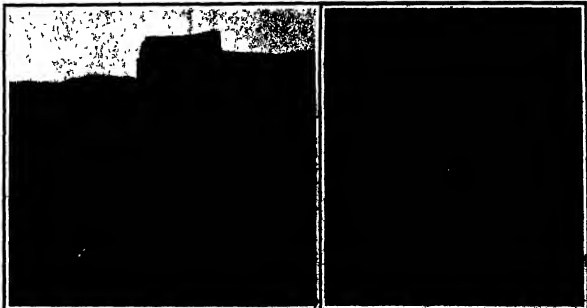
The gun fired 3-pound shots at the rate of 100 per minute, the range being 3½ miles. Shots were tried with the brakes of the car set, and also released. When the brakes were set the truck did not move, and no shock was felt by those surrounding the gun on the truck platform. With the brakes released there was a slight movement on the road, but no shock. The designer of the gun recommends its use on a truck such as the Packard, but armored for war purposes.

We hope to publish additional information regarding the results of additional trials of this gun, which are being made at Sandy Hook and Springfield for the army, and at Indian Head for the navy.

THE MIDDLE WEST AND THE AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRY.

BY ALFRED BARTON.

Michigan leads all States in motor-car manufacture.



BALLOON-ATTACK RAPID FIRE GUN, WITH SHELLS, MOUNTED ON COMPLETELY ARMORED CAR, WEIGHT 2½ TONS.

THE SAME GUN MOUNTED ON A SEMI-ARMORED CAR, OVER THE MICHIGAN BODY.

## ANTI JOY RIDE DEVICES.

BY HARRY WILKIN PERRY.

So great a proportion of the many fatal or otherwise very serious automobile accidents chronicled almost daily during the motoring season is the result of the use of cars without the owners' knowledge or consent, that it seems as if the time has come when the public welfare demands the general equipment of automobiles with some means whereby the unauthorized use of machines can be positively prevented if matters continue as they have, it will become incumbent on every law-abiding and gentlemanly owner of an automobile to adopt voluntarily such protective measures, even if it is compelling it are not enacted for the public welfare.

"Joy riding"—as the wild running of a motor car by a partially incriminated driver accompanied by several hilarious companions has come to be called in the automobile vernacular—is of several kinds. It may be indulged in by the lawful owner or right user of the machine, by strangers passing through the streets and finding no untended automobile standing by the curb which can be appropriated, and by chauffeurs employed by the owner or by employees of the public garage where the car is kept, who take it out, casually at night, without the owner's or the garage proprietor's knowledge.

Laws have existed for some years in a number of States making it a misdemeanor for anyone to meddle with an automobile standing in the street, and prohibiting users of motor cars from leaving their machines untended with the engine running. During the past winter there has been much activity in legislative circles for the enactment of laws to prevent "joy riding." The New York Legislature passed a bill containing a provision prohibiting anyone from using or tampering with a motor vehicle without the owner's consent, under penalty of a fine, imprisonment, or deprivation of the right to use the public road for six months, or any or all such penalties. The Colorado Legislature passed a bill to go into effect and to be enforced immediately upon its passage, as "in the opinion of the General Assembly an emergency exists," prohibiting any person from tampering with or entering or starting any motor car without the

knowledge and consent of the owner or owners, whether an individual or a corporation, and fixing the penalties for infraction at a fine of not less than \$50 nor more than \$300 or imprisonment for not less than 30 days nor more than 90 days or both such fine and imprisonment.

Such laws will doubtless have a deterrent effect, but

in the way of producing a device that will act as a certain check on the use of the car and yet enable the chauffeur or the mechanic to clean and adjust the engine, test the ignition and generally keep the car "tuned up" to maximum working efficiency in the owner's and complex chauffeurs and machinists are clever and resourceful or they are unworthy of their hire. A nail, screw, or piece of wire can be made of such to take the place of a removable switch plate or the star wheel or a burglar that drives the flexible shaft of a recording instrument can be disconnected. Again, if any operating part of the motor car is positively locked against action, such as the wheels, steering gear, or transmission, it may be difficult to move the machine about in the garage, as frequently becomes necessary for washing, repairing, or in event of a fire when all the cars have to be hurriedly pushed into the street.

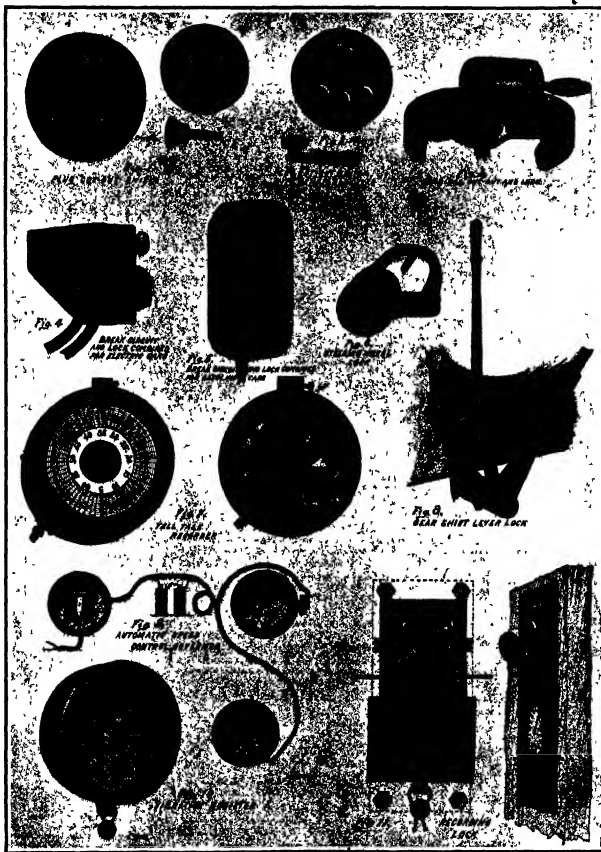
Mechanical devices that have been invented with the object of affording partial or complete protection to the owner against the unauthorized use of his car may be divided into four groups as follows:

1. Devices to prevent the engine from being started when the car is left standing in the street embracing (A) ignition switches with removable contact plugs (B) ignition switches that can be locked in inoperative position
2. Devices to lock essential operative parts, embracing (A) steering wheel lock and (B) a gear change lever lock
3. Speed limit

ing device, embracing (A) instruments interlocked so that a given speed cannot be exceeded, (B) audible signals sounded automatically when a predetermined speed is attained, and (C) speed indicating devices with large dials prominently placed so that they can be read at a distance by policemen and others.

4. Vehicle movement recording devices embracing (A) vibration recording instruments of the piezoelectric type, and (B) clockwork registers in which permanent records of the time, extent and rate of movement are

(Continued on page 54.)



ANTI JOY RIDE DEVICES.

they are difficult of enforcement and are positive rather than preventive, applying the punishment after the evil has been committed. The abuse of automobiles as distinguished from their proper and most desirable use has reached such serious proportions as to call for the general application of mechanical and automatic means whereby the unauthorized use of a machine can be positively prevented or detected the first time it occurs and the punishment made to follow swiftly upon its commission.

Inventors have wrestled with this problem for several years, and a variety of devices have been put on the market to fulfill the desired ends. The difficulties

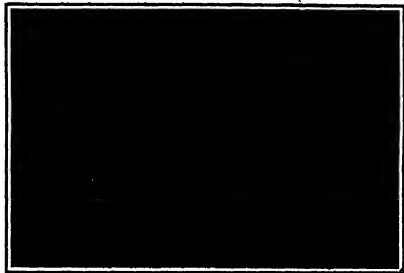
# WHAT THE MOTOR VEHICLE IS DOING FOR THE FARMER.

BY WALTER LANGFORD.

Less than five years ago farmers generally looked upon the automobile with bitterness and condemned it as a "toy of the rich." Today, there are farms comprising hundreds and even thousands of acres, on which nearly all of the heaviest work is done by motor vehicles. There is hardly any part of farm work that cannot be done more quickly and with greater satis-

faction and time-saving ability of the motor car. Its balance of the cost of a tenth or a twentieth of a gallon of gasoline per mile traveled against a third or half bushel of oats a day at 85 cents a bushel, whether the horse is working or is standing in the stall on a rainy or a winter day, and reckons the time saved to himself as mainly pure gain.

room, high clearance above the road, a thoroughly protected engine and transmission, reasonable price and low fuel consumption and maintenance cost have contributed toward making this model popular with the rural buyers. From the statements of hundreds of users, it is found that the average cost of upkeep is not more than two-thirds that of keeping a horse. The



WINTER HIGH-WHEELED MOTOR WAGON CARRYING A LOAD OF FARM PRODUCTS.



CARRYING CRATED CRICKETS AND EGGS TO MARKET.

faction by the use of motor power—either applied to a self-moving machine or in the stationary form—than with horse-drawn. Whether it is making a quick trip to town with a load of butter, eggs, fruit, or vegetables, to the grocery with the evening's cans of fresh milk, to church with the family on Sabbath morning, doing the spring and fall plowing, cultivating, reaping, threshing—the motor vehicle in its varied forms has become the latest ally of the progressive prosperous farmer.

It has been a matter of general knowledge and common comment in automobile circles that extraordinary numbers of motor cars have been going into the remote sections of Kansas, Nebraska, Minnesota, the Dakotas, Colorado, and even Montana, Oklahoma, and Texas during the past season. The statement has been made by a man identified with the trade and presumed to be posted that fully one-quarter of the purchases of motor cars west of the Mississippi during the season of 1909 were made by farmers, and this means a good many when the combined output of the manufacturers of the country for the year aggregated in the neighborhood of 75,000 machines. Some of the little communities in the Middle West, with a population numbering only hundreds or at most a few thousand inhabitants have begun to boast of possessing more motor cars in proportion to population than any other city or town in the country, and to prove it, they congregate all the cars in the village in Main Street and have a group photograph taken.

The farmer, who has long distances to go for everything, from a keg of nails to a paper of tobacco, and who works early and late to make up time lost partly in going to town, has not been slow to appreciate the

shortened all the way from the Atlantic to the Pacific coast there are small fruit and vegetable growers, dairy farmers and poultry raisers who make a daily practice of carrying light loads of produce to market in the town or on the rear deck of ordinary light touring cars. They can leave the horses to work in the field and can make the trip in a third or quarter of the time formerly consumed thereby gaining just that much additional time to be devoted to more work or to reading, visiting, attendance at concerts, lectures, etc.

The ordinary four or five-passenger touring car of moderate power and reasonable price is most extensively used by farmers. Some of the accompanying illustrations show how such a car is put to practical uses on the farm with the rear seat removed. This is the general utility automobile of the agricultural sections and is used for a great variety of purposes. With it the farmer drives out to his grain field to superintend the threshing, runs down to the pasture with a reel of wire to repair the fence, runs into town with the horses' collars and harness to have them mended, carries cans of milk to the creamery or crates of live poultry to the express office.

Observing the growing demand by farmers for a car for all-around work a wide-awake automobile manufacturing company in Kenosha, Wis., about two years ago began advertising in the farm papers a double-cylinder light touring car at a moderate price, and inside of a year had sold between 800 and 900 cars in the rural districts. There are now probably between 1,500 and 2,000 of its machines owned by men who live on farms practically all of whom use them as general utility machines. An easily removable top

farmer of to-day is well informed regarding the mechanical features that adapt an automobile to his requirements and is a careful buyer. He can safely carry 500 pounds on the rear of a 20-horse-power car and can drive ten miles to town in from half to three-quarters of an hour with the load.

Largely as a result also of the farmers' demands there has been developed during the last three or four years a type of motor car called the high-wheeled buggy. There are upward of fifty companies in the country now actively engaged in building this style of motor car especially for use in country districts where the roads are rough, hilly, and, according to the season, deep with mud, sand, or snow. They are very low in price, simple in construction and operation, and answer the purposes of many rural dwellers very well. They use only about a gallon of gasoline to fifteen or twenty miles traveled, and a set of narrow solid tires, costing say \$35, will wear a year or more with no expense for repair of punctures or blow-outs.

Within a year or two there has been added to the two-passenger runabout and four-passenger survey models a high-wheel open-bed light delivery wagon model, of the demountable wagon type, especially suited to farmers' use. A load of 500 to 800 pounds can be carried in the space beneath and back of the front seat, and in some makes an extra double seat can be set in the back to accommodate extra passengers when the vehicle is to be used as a passenger conveyance.

Other light work wagons with open-bed bodies particularly suited for agricultural use but fitted with longer bodies and having a load capacity of 1,000 pounds or more and costing \$1,000 and upward, are



AN AUTOMOBILE TRACTION ENGINE USED FOR DRIVING A FARMING MACHINE.



A HIGH-WHEELED MOTOR WAGON ON THE ROAD.

TYPED BY AGRICULTURAL ATTACHEES.

manufactured by several companies in Chicago, Syracuse, High, Ill., Dearborn, Mich., and Little, Pa. They are commonly suited to carrying to market good sized loads of vegetables, fruit, dairy and hayward produce weighing from 1,000 to 3,000 pounds, and for hauling back loads of feed, fertilizer, fencing and building materials, farm machinery, and so on. The high wheels give the axles and driving mechanism a good road clearance, and the construction is of a heavy and durable as well as simple character.

Numerous cases might be given of motor cars put to special service in connection with farming. In Maryland there is a high-class dairy farm where motor delivery wagons are used altogether to distribute milk among the consumers in the vicinity, and in Indianapolis a large milk company is using a 1½-ton and a 3-ton gasoline truck in the collection of milk from dairy farms within a radius of twenty-five miles of the city, which was formerly shipped by the interurban electric railways or by horse and wagon. In England a large produce grower sends his fresh vegetables to market in a huge motor van, the roof and tailboard of which, as well as the inside, are piled with green goods. These examples seen to forebush the time, not very distant, perhaps, when farmers will find it cheaper and more convenient to ship all of their farm products to market on motor trucks than to haul them with horses and wagons. Possibly the trucks will be owned by local express companies organized for the purpose, which will charge a reasonable price for haulage, so that it will pay the farmer better to keep his horses—if he needs any them—at work in the field, and he will not need to invest any capital in the motor trucks. Doubtless some of the transporting companies will use motor tractors, which will run over regular routes every morning and pick up a string of farm wagons loaded with produce, hauling them to market and back again for a third charge. A single tractor should be able to haul four or five such wagons over good roads.

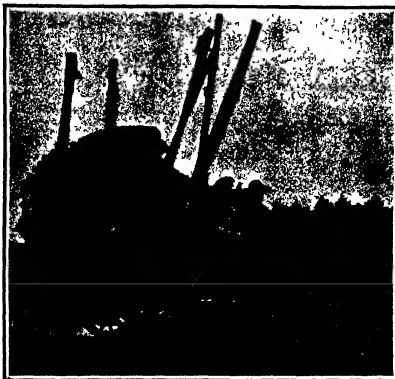
In Connecticut a three-ton truck is regularly used for hauling grain and carrying all sorts of farm supplies and products for a 1,500-acre farm. This is one of the many fancy estates conducted in the East by wealthy owners largely as a personal hobby yet at the same time as a profitable investment. The truck represents an outlay of \$5,000 and is kept in a special garage for work motor vehicles which are to be used extensively on the farm.

A ranch of several thousand acres in Montana is conducted entirely without horses, the plowing, sowing, cultivating, reaping, threshing, and hauling of the grain to the railroad being done by motor tractors and motor wagons. We have had the horseless street car for twenty years, the "horseless carriage" for ten, and now we have the horseless farm. May we hope some day for the horseless city?

While the foregoing examples are isolated cases and apply to farming on an extensive scale with ample capital, they point to great possibilities for the future use of self-propelled vehicles in farm work, utilizing gasoline, kerosene or denatured alcohol as fuel. The farmer with a small acreage who would not be justified in buying a motor tractor for his own use, will be able to hire his plowing and threshing done by companies operating motor tractors, as for many years he

has had his threshing done by itinerant steam threshing outfits. And, incidentally, the work will be done cheaper, there will be no danger of fire from flying sparks, there will be little or no water to haul, and there will be fewer men to feed.

In this country, as well as in England and France, there are large companies that make a specialty of



AN AVERY FARM TRUCK HAULING SOAP.

building small farm tractors for universal tractor and stationary power work. A company in Minneapolis makes an 8-horse-power tractor weighing 5,000 pounds for such work as operating hay presses, corn shellers, etc. and for drawing wagons and portable machines of this class on the road. In New York Pa. is another large company that makes motor tractors and traction engines in ten sizes, from 1,000 to 24,000 pounds in weight. The smallest is rated at 1½ to 2 horsepower and is intended for all sorts of farm work such as hauling the stone-hoist, churning, pumping feed cutting, etc.

American motor tractors used for plowing and threshing usually develop from 12 to 35 horsepower and weigh from 5,000 to 20,000 pounds. They haul gang plows turning from two to eight furrows at a time. One of these—a 15-horse-power tractor built by the largest harvesting machinery company in the world—plowed 1.09 acres of "gunbo" soil with a three-furrow 14-inch bottom plow in an hour and a quarter on a consumption of 1½ gallons of gasoline per acre at an international competition held in Winnipeg last July.

A "wagon tractor," built in Peoria by a great agricultural implement works for general utility

costs an acre for fuel. In a ten-hour day 7½ acre could be plowed for about \$3.25, not including labor. This wagon tractor is a very interesting vehicle. It was designed particularly for farm purposes by men who are familiar with the peculiar requirements, and combines in one machine a truck for carrying loads on its own body, a tractor for drawing plows and other farm machinery, and a power plant for driving threshing machines, hay balers and other stationary machinery by belt. It will take the place of several teams and wagons on the farm.

Nowadays, on the farm as well as in the manufactory it is necessary to do the largest amount of work in the shortest set time in order to make an under taking successful. This is recognized by the progressive farmer and farm machinery builders and to a large extent the advantages of the motor car and motor tractor are appreciated by builders of farm wagons and huggies. Most of the leaders in these fields are now offering their customers a motor buggy, a motor car, a motor wagon, or a motor tractor.

#### The Modern Electric Automobile.

BY BENJAMIN S. S. S.

The heavy cumbersome electric car or brougham of earlier days has cleared the field for the light run-about Victoria or interior-driven coupe. Less weight means more speed and a greater mileage, radius. It was looked upon as a great performance when one of the earlier types of electric automobiles traveled forty miles on a single charge of electricity at a comparatively low speed. The modern electric automobile will negotiate about twice the distance at the same speed. The most vital components of an electric automobile are the motor and controller, two parts which are of different design on about every other make. For this reason the designer of the automobile has outwitted the rival of the earlier days, the compound motor. The compound motor, if properly designed, will do the work for fire, run, and start, and will be very economical, requiring very little attention. The most desirable motor is not that which tends to drive a car up a hill at a comparatively high speed. A heavy battery discharge is thus induced, which is of course very detrimental to the battery. Of two cars traveling at the same speed on the level, that one will travel the faster on a grade whose controller was not changed. The motor of this faster



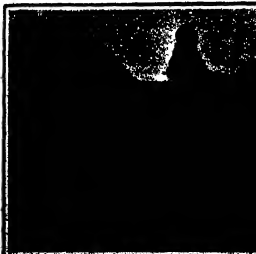
WITH A BOX OF WIRE SPRINGS AND A BOX OF TOOLS OF THE REAR. THE PARTS ARE QUICKLY REPAIRED.

car is designed for a smaller increase of torque in proportion to the decrease of the speed. Even if this difference in speed is very small, say one-half mile an hour, the faster car will have to pay dearly for it. In current as well as in decrease of mile age radius and in battery wear. The good designer will find a middle way. He will strive for the highest battery efficiency. It is by no means difficult to construct a

fast electric, as the power is limited for a short distance. The art is to apply the power at diagonal in the most all-around satisfactory way and to develop a carriage which is reliable and cheap to maintain.

In the line of various controllers the drum type for good reasons seems to have proven the best. The various speed changes can be obtained without arcing or burning, and a gradual throw-in of speed is effected from step to step with a small increase of

(Continued on page 52)



INTERNATIONAL HARTWELL RAILWAY WAGON.

HALF A DOZEN GALS OF MILK ARE TAKEN TO THE GRANARY AND THE EMPTY GALS SHROUDED AWAY.

purpose in the field and on the road, was tested at the same trials. Coupled to a two-furrow 14-inch gang plow, it turned over 1.09 acres in 1 hour 25 minutes on a consumption equivalent to 2.36 gallons of gasoline per acre. This would amount to about 50

# THE MODERN LOW-PRICED CAR.

BY JOSEPH ROGERS.

The automobile buyer faces no such questions in 1910 as confronted him a few years ago, when all that was expected of a car was that it would run. At that time the gasoline engine was not understood as the engineer understands it today and all of the parts and appendages were undergoing a process of evolution that resulted in vast differences between the models of two successive years. Each maker had some peculiarity of design, and the selection of a car was complicated by the difficulty of getting definite information on performance.

There were reliable cars, of course, but their initial cost and the expense of operation made their ownership possible only to the very well-to-do. The car that could be bought by the man of moderate income required close attention and the adjustments and repairs that were a constant necessity left him little time for anything else. If these were in the hands of a repair man the monthly bills were out of all proportion to the mileage covered and the pleasure obtained. Automobiling at that time was unquestionably a diversion for the rich, and it is popularly supposed that such is still the case, but as a matter of fact, the man of moderate income can today purchase and use a car at an expense that is well within the bounds of reason.

The primary cause for this is found in the relatively close understanding of engine and car design that obtains today. The scientific method of work that has been carried on in the large factories has resulted in a refinement in design and an approach to a standard that place automobile manufacturing on as economical a basis as is possible in the production of any other machine.

The modern prices at which an automobile may be bought is not due to the use of poor material and cheap labor, nor to the fact that the low-priced car of today is better in quality than the highest grade cars of last year ago.

In the early days of the automobile industry the manufacturer was under the necessity of making all of the parts, today, the factories actually making even 75 per cent of the parts that they use are in small proportion to the number of producers. A few years ago, when a manufacturer produced a car, he was responsible for every gear, pinion, bolt, nut, and every other part, he controlled the fate, to-day, a constantly increasing number of firms make it no secret that their cars are assembled in whole or in part. It is in this way that the low-priced car of today is the result of the medium priced automobile is largely due.

The manufacturer of a complete car is under the necessity of maintaining an experimental department in which he can try out suggested improvements on all parts of the chassis. This is expensive work, and a proportion of the cost of the department must be included in the price of every car sold. The cost of an assembled car is under no such handicap, for each of the firms with which he does business will carry on only such experimental work as is required for his special line, and the expense is borne by no great an output that the individual producer is negligible.

There was a time when an assembled car was undoubtedly open to suspicion, for however distrustful the makers of its parts might be to do good work they had neither the knowledge nor the facilities that would make it possible. These same companies now possess enormous plants, their designers and equipment are the best obtainable, and their products embody the latest and best in scientific material and construction. Assemblers thus have parts at their command that are of a high degree of efficiency, and can buy them at prices that are far below what was charged for the weak and faulty products of former years.

The low prices at which assembled cars can profitably be sold have forced the builders of cars of competing grades to manufacture on a very large scale, in order to bring down the cost through economies possible only with quantity production. Such a firm equips its factory with jigs and special tools for every operation, and makes it an invariable rule to accept no order that calls for a slight deviation from the standard specifications.

When a manufacturer turns out twenty thousand cars a year, it is not only justifiable but necessary for him to invent very considerable sums in special machinery of all kinds that for a smaller output would be inadvisable. One manufacturer has spent \$40,000 for dies to produce a rear axle housing, on a production of one thousand such parts a year, and for this would be \$40. With an output of twenty thousand cars, however, the charge of \$2 against each is little enough for the purchaser to pay for so excellent a feature.

A recent development that illustrates the endeavor

to reduce manufacturing costs is the establishment by some of the leading producers of assembling shops at the large centers. To these are shipped parts in sufficient quantity to handle the number of cars to be built, and as there is no equipment of machine tools, the expense is slight. The freight rate on unassembled parts is much lower than on complete cars, and the saving effected in transportation as well as in money makes the system a satisfactory one.

However it may have been in the past the present day manufacturer of moderate-priced cars makes no more than a legitimate profit. One of the largest producers stated recently that his profit on a \$1,000 car is less than \$100, this is not excessive when one considers his enormous investment in material and parts, his really vast equipment of machine tools, and his labor expense.

It has been said that any average engineer can design a car to sell at \$4,000, but that the greatest skill is necessary when the selling price is to be less than \$1,000. However that may be, the medium and low priced cars on the market show exceedingly clever designing and bear every indication of the highest grade of mechanical engineering. Being light in weight, the material entering into their construction is selected with the greatest care, and it is typical of the automobile industry that many of the alloy steels in common use were hardly more than laboratory experiments a few years ago.

The whole tendency of design is to reduce weight and machinery and assembling costs, but it is rare to see a car where strength and durability have been sacrificed for economy. One of the features of the 1910 cars is the casting of the four cylinders in one piece, which results in a considerable saving in weight and cost, with no apparent reduction in strength or ability. The increasing tendency to adopt the gravity system of water circulation is another economical move, for it permits the suppression of the pump. The mechanical lubricators that were formerly in general use have been abandoned, and the oil is now pumped directly in the crank case which is not only less expensive to build and assemble, but makes lubrication as positive and unfailing as it well can be. The mag valve is now the standard feature of the new cars, for its very low price, and quite frequently it is the sole means of ignition. An advantage that may be gained through its use is that the spark may be maintained at a constant distance and therefore the spark and its connection may be done away with. The tooling of the clutch and brake pedals on the gear case reduces the cost of assembling, for when they are hung on a rod passing in rear the fretting is less as was the practice in former years, accurate fitting is an absolute and costly necessity. When the engine, change speed gear, and rear axle are separate units, assembling is complicated by the necessity of setting them accurately in line. In a great number of 1910 cars the change speed gear is either built in with the engine or the rear axle, and the cost of assembling is reduced in consequence.

In spite of the excellence of the 1910 cars, it must not be assumed that the limit of perfection has been reached. Some of the work turned out by the designers shows that they have followed a common path, but in many cases there are no reasons for it, and it is not easy to reconcile. The perfected car cannot come until the efficiency of one definite construction has been recognized, and its proper proportions demonstrated. The standard varies in the designs of to-day is evidence in itself that there is still much to learn, for otherwise, as an example, there would be less difference in the dimensions of engine bearings than in the dimensions of different sizes of pistons of the same power. The relation of bore to stroke is the subject of a vast difference of opinion at the present time, and even the relative lengths of the connecting rods are not agreed upon.

Having produced cars that will run, and that can be depended on for steady service, the problems now before the designer have to do with the increase of efficiency and economy. The most varied of experiments at this time it is doubtful if any manufacturer knows what proportion of the power of his engine is absorbed in operating the valves, or in driving the magnets and pumps, but these and other far more complicated details must be worked out by his future models.

If the principles of the present engines are adhered to, the coming years will bring a closer and more accurate knowledge of the effects of a piston and of the features and relative dimensions that serve the order of things. For the car owner this will mean greater economy in the use of fuel, increased simplicity in construction, and the reduction in price that is the inevitable result of standardization.

## The Wright test and Aviation in America.

The granting last week by Judge Hise of a preliminary injunction restraining Glenn Curtiss and the Hering-Durham Company from practicing or assisting in their well-known type of biplane has quite taken by surprise almost everyone versed in patent law, as such an injunction has been granted very rarely, if ever, before upon an application for a preliminary injunction in the case of the Hering patent covering the use of a clutch between the motor and the road wheels of an automobile—a case in which an infringement was much more apparent—such an injunction was not granted. The granting of the injunction at this time has had two results. In the first place it has intimidated a good many inventors who were hard at work upon the perfecting of the aeroplane, and secondly it has encouraged the Wrights to attempt to create a monopoly in flying machines. With a million-dollar company back of them, and with orders already booked aggregating more than this figure, the granting of the present injunction gives them practical control of aviation in America. A second step in this direction occurred on January 4th, when aviator Paulhan was served with a notice to appear in the New York District Court on day later to show cause why he should not be enjoined from flying his Farman biplane in the United States. As he is booked to make flights at the Los Angeles aviation meeting from the 10th to the 20th of January, this is a serious blow to the first aviation meet held in this country.

The death of Leon Delagrange from a fall sustained as a result of the breaking of a wing of his Blériot monoplane while flying in a 20-mile wind at Pau, France, on the 4th inst., has given aviation another setback that it will take a long time and many excellent demonstrations to overcome. Four lives lost within the last four months is a record by no means encouraging to aviation and unless a more complete law be done to encourage flight in this country, none of the aeronautic factories soon to be started will do much business for some time to come.

## Hydrogen for Inflating Pneumatic Tires.

The inflation of an automobile tire with a hand pump is so laborious an operation that some automobilists carry cylinders of compressed air, with which a tire can be inflated easily and rapidly. The cylinders, however, may be found empty when they are most needed. Dr. Henry A. Vreth, manufacturer of aluminum pipes, has conceived the idea of replacing the air by hydrogen, generated by the action of water on specially prepared aluminum waste. In presence of alkaline, aluminum decomposes water into oxygen and hydrogen. The oxygen combines with the aluminum and the hydrogen is set free. The method of operation is very simple. About 10 ounces of granulated aluminum and 10 ounces of water are introduced into an air tube of the capacity (1½ pints) which is commonly furnished by the great tire makers, and the bronze plug is quickly screwed down. In a few seconds the space not otherwise occupied, about 5½ pints, is filled with hydrogen at a pressure of 150 atmospheres. This is equivalent to more than 100 gallons of hydrogen at atmospheric pressure. The other product of the reaction is alumina, which can easily be washed out. The special preparation of the aluminum consists in the addition of a small percentage of mercury chloride which starts the reaction in the absence of alkalies so that pure water can be used.

This method possesses two advantages. It allows every automobilist to recharge his air tubes without returning to the factory. There is also a real advantage in inflating tires with hydrogen instead of air. The diffusion of gases through colloidal substances like India rubber follows a very different law from that which governs the diffusion of gases through ordinary solids. In the latter case the rate of diffusion is inversely proportional to the square root of the density of the gas, but the rate of diffusion through India rubber is directly proportional to the facility with which the gas can be taken up by the rubber. It was by the action of aluminum upon water that was used for filling balloons in the Russo-Japanese war, but this ingenious and simple method of obtaining and using hydrogen appears to be as new as it is interesting.

To Americans who are accustomed to travel on the high it will be surprising to learn, on the authority of The Engineer, that the London and North Western Railway has inaugurated an electric service from side of the London railway (Dulwich) station to the suburb of North Finchley, on which a fare of half a penny will be charged.

## HOW TO OVERHAUL A CAR.

BY HERBERT L. TOWLE.

In order of importance, the facilities needed for overhauling are a warm, light place to work, an extensive electric light, a bench, several boxes for use as workbenches and supports for the dismantled parts, and an liberal assortment of tools as the owner's means will permit. An iron vise, a bench drill, a foot or power sledge for metal work, and an emery wheel are almost necessary. Failing these, certain parts can be sent to the shop for refitting. A complete kit of bench tools is assumed—hammers, files, hack saw, chisels, wrenches, screwdrivers, cotter pin extractor, etc.; also a soldering torch.

The first step after visiting the car by strip it of loose mud grime, and small gear gradually. If the engine and axle are greasy drop them into a pan of kerosene. Have a large box handy for small parts, and three or four small boxes in it for the purpose of grouping related small parts together. It is very easy to get a car apart and shuffle the various belts, washers, and other small things so thoroughly that it is impossible to tell where they belong on reassembling.

Ascertain by looking under the car whether the gasoline tank is attached to the body or to the chassis. If the former, disconnect the gasoline pipe at each end, plug the ends with bits of rag, disconnect the horn tube and any electric wiring that may run from the body to the chassis, take out the bolts holding the body to the side and rear frame main horns, and lift the body straight up. The dash is a part of the chassis, not of the body, and does not need to be disturbed at this stage. Have a couple of wood horses ready to receive the body. Do not set it on the floor, as there may be parts projecting beneath it such as the gasoline connection beneath the tank.

The amateur is advised to begin overhauling in the order of ease rather than of magnitude. For this reason the brakes are suggested as a start. In closed rear brakes on a car with side chains are generally exposed by taking off the rear wheels. First, see if the brake struts have removable cover plates. If not, take off the axle tubes, chains, remove the hub caps and nuts, and the next wheels will come off by turning the axle. If the axle is bent, straighten it. If so, replace the axle. The foot brakes are adjusted or replaced in the same way.

Remove the radiator, wash it out under a strong stream of water, and if it is suspected of being encrusted with scale fill it up with kerosene and let it stand—until spring time will do no harm. When reassembling it is important to give the radiator an even bearing around all four studs, supposing it to be held down by that number. If possible, have it put on 1/4-inch sheets of rubber, and do not draw the holding-down bolts entirely tight. The radiator although frail, is much more rigid than the frame, and any springing of the latter will surely start leaks in the radiator if it has to follow it. The two sketches Fig.

1 and 2, show how a frame may be racked in going over a rough road. If the radiator leaks it is best to let an expert tinsmith repair it (not all tin smiths are expert). The secret of success is to use a good grade of solder and sweat it thoroughly into the seams taking plenty of time. If the top is not stenciled it will be worth while to run a brace or strap to tie down the top of the engine or the dashboard. This rod need be only heavy enough to check the vibration.

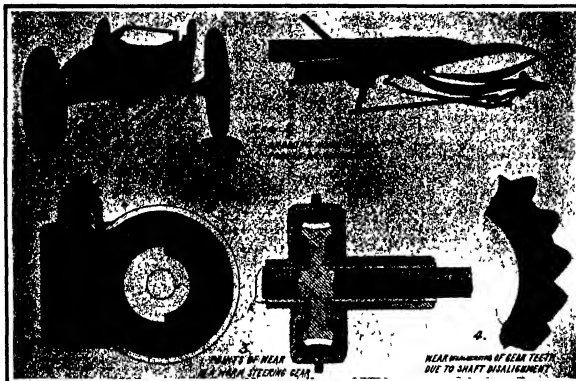
If there is much lost motion in the worm or other reducing gear of the steering mechanism, disconnect the steering links, also the throttle and spark con-

nections, and take the steering column out with the reducing gear at its base. Open the casing and see where the lost motion is. It may be in the threads of the worm *A*, Fig. 3, and the teeth of the segment *B*. Much of it, how ever, is likely to be in the thrust washers *C* *D* of the steering column and *E* *F* of the segment shaft. Frequently ball bearings are used at *C* *F*. In time either these or plain washers need replacement. Likewise the bushings at *G* *H*. If the steering gear case is not provided with a grease cup, this is an excellent time to put one in. Wear on the worm and segment *A* *B* is

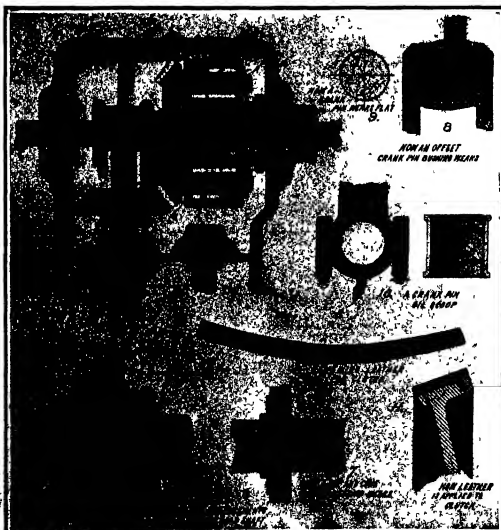
not easy to take up, an approximate cure is to make the bushings *G* *H* eccentric so that by turning them the centers of the worm and segment are brought closer together. Since, however, most of the wear is in the middle teeth the gear may be loose in the middle position and tight when the wheels are cramped over. There is no remedy for this, save renewal.

The steering knuckle pivots and the pins in the ends of the cross link wear loose in time, and usually it is a shop job to wear the holes and fit new case-hardened pins. See that the front wheels are parallel or "toe in" very slightly when pointing ahead. It is usual to shape the steering knuckles so that the whole incline toward each other at the ground. They are rarely vertical, and never in line the other way. If the front axle is sprung have a blacksmith straighten it.

Then out gear case and test all the bushings including the pilot bushing at the front end of the squared shaft, by shaking them. If ball or roller bearings are used, replace them if loose, if plain bushings they must be refitted or replaced. New bushings bought from stock generally need considerable fitting. The re-



SOME PARTS OF A CAR WHICH MUST BE CAREFULLY CONSIDERED IN OVERHAULING



SOME PARTS WORN IN AN AUTOMOBILE.

(Continued on page 62.)

# AUTOMOBILE FIRE ENGINES.

## A NEW TYPE OF MOTOR VEHICLE.

BY HERBERT T. WADE.

The great success of automobile fire apparatus in Europe and in many of the smaller cities of the United States frequently gives rise to the inquiry, why are such machines not used more extensively in the larger fire departments where the highest efficiency of apparatus and personnel is demanded and maintained? The acknowledged utility of automobiles for pleasure and business even under extraordinary conditions emphasizes the tardiness the more forcibly, particularly as the modern motor vehicle is now capable not only of attaining high speed but of carrying heavy loads. Promptness in reaching a fire with suitable apparatus is of prime importance, and the automobile in this respect and in endurance is easily superior to a horse. Today with high speed pumping capacity can be secured in a motor vehicle sufficient for most conditions of service, and this, with economy of maintenance after the initial cost, has led to the adoption of automobile fire apparatus by many of the progressive smaller cities. This economy is obviously due to the fact that only when in operation are gasoline and oil required. A horse even when idle entails expense for shoeing and feeding.

Even the most conservative of metropolises fire officials realize that the rapid transportation by horses and the subsequent operation at high pressure of a heavy steam pumping engine on wheels is more or less a mechanical anachronism in these days, when control power stations have largely taken the place of the small isolated plant, and when small internal combustion motors using gasoline have been found economical, convenient, and efficient. The pumping power of a fire engine depends upon the weight that can be transported. As an internal-combustion motor connected with a pump would weigh much less than a steam engine and boiler and going to a fire would use the same engine for propulsion, it would follow that greater efficiency could be secured. Even superior from the mechanical standpoint, but not as yet practically applied, would be the mounting of an electric pump on a gasoline-driven motor car, using current derived from supply mains near the scene of operation. Chief Blinn of the New York Fire Department has developed such an idea which possesses many obvious merits. He proposes to use electrically-driven centrifugal pumps on motor vehicles capable of high speed and to obtain power from electric-light standards or other outside which are at almost every street corner and quite as well distributed as hydrants. The same condition also prevails in many rural districts, where electric light and trolley lines are to be found on every main street. Suitable plugs and conductors could be used for connections, and with the power derived from a central station the portable machinery would be reduced to a minimum weight. A similar idea, though not so elaborately developed, was put into operation more than twenty years ago by Dr. B. B. Wheeler, now president of the

Crocker-Wheeler Company, Amherst, N. J. This apparatus consisted of a bipolar motor directly coupled to a pump, and was mounted on a light carriage. The gasoline motor car was not so highly developed at this time, for which reason the carriage was drawn by horses. A fire engine built on this plan was tried out on the Erie Canal at Schenectady. It was finally brought to Amherst, and was destroyed in a fire which occurred there in 1885. Strange to say, this scheme, which would involve comparatively little outlay for a large city, has never been thoroughly and practically tested.

At present, motor apparatus is most widely used in suburbs and small cities with wooden dwellings, in other words, in communities where its high speed renders it possible to cover a much greater territory by a single company, and where infrequent alarms reduce the expense of maintenance far below that entailed for feeding and shoeing horses. For example, a St. Louis motor company recently made a run of nine miles to a country villa outside the city limits and re-

turned large city will consist simply of an efficient high-pressure motor system and automobile engines and hose wagons.

In a description of modern automobile fire apparatus we may mention, first, the high-speed touring car or runabout, for the use of chiefs and supervising officials, capable of rapid travel and of covering wide sections of territory. This was the first automobile used by fire departments. Such a car does not usually carry extinguishers or any fire apparatus, one or two of which extinguishers and hose or other tools being used only in rare instances. All that is demanded of such a machine is a high quality and reliable motor of sufficient speed and easy control. In many cases these thirty-minute Chief Crocker of the New York Fire Department is at the scene of any fire in New York, directing in person the operations of the firemen. This is significant in view of the large amount of territory comprising the greater city and the dangers involved in some of the outlying districts.

A modification of the chief's car may be seen in that supplied to the battalion chief or the head of the fire department of the regular city firemen. The chief carries with him not only a chauffeur but one or two firemen from the permanent headquarters force.

If rapid travel is desirable for the chief, it is of course equally advantageous for the firemen responding to an alarm. In small towns such as those caused by a curtain blowing against an open gas light or by a short-circuit of a lighting system, one or two men with axes and hooks promptly go to the scene can prevent what might be a serious fire in a dwelling house or stable. Accordingly it was early realized that auxiliary or emergency squads could be equipped with motor cars and could be dispatched at high speed to the scene of the fire. These men deal with an incipient fire or prepare for the steam engine which follow and if necessary send in additional alarms or communications by telephone with headquarters. This type of equipment is extensively used throughout the United States.

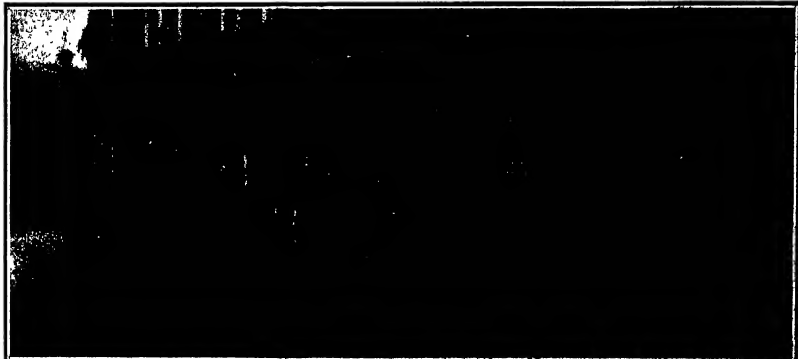
But it must be realized that this means simply the prompt bringing to the scene of action the trained men who can take care of the smallest kind of a fire. Without apparatus or sufficient power nothing can be done where the blaze is at all serious. It was with this end in view that automobile fire-fighting facilities were increased by adding a chemical tank and a few hundred feet of small hose. The chemical tank and equipment has now become an indispensable feature of many fire departments. Carried on horse-drawn hose wagon, a small fire can be quenched in its infancy by its means with a minimum use of water and consequent damage. The chemical tank consists of a copper cistern of from 40 to 70 gallons capacity containing bicarbonate of soda and other chemicals with which sulphuric acid and water may come in



MOTOR-DRIVEN CHEMICAL ENGINE.

in time to save the house. This same company in a period of eighteen months responded to 1,000 fires without a single failure, and in so doing traveled 2,350 miles in all conditions of weather, including mud, sleet and snow. The economy of this company is apparent from the fact that its maintenance account for twelve months was \$481.31, including two accidents, which resulted in an expense of \$250, as compared with an annual cost of \$816, for feeding and shoeing two horses. Even in a district where there are no water supply hydrants, such a machine can make a speedy run, and draw water from a well, canal, or pond.

In a large city the question of territory is not so important as that of speed in getting the firemen to the fire. In a district with high pressure fire protection fire occur while taken in time may not require the powerful streams from the fire hydrants and could be put out with a minimum of water damage. Indeed it seems likely that the future fire protection of a



A HOOK AND LADDER AUTOMOBILE TRUCK.

resistant to generate carbonic-acid gas at such pressure as to be forced with the water through a small hose. This apparatus has been used with considerable success in some fire departments, but it is fair to say has been ignored or found unavailable in others. Especially is this true of New York city, where the practice has always been to concentrate at a fire adequate pumping power at the earliest possible moment and to use large quantities of water, the idea being to take no chances and even at the risk of water damage to err on the side of safety.

In the horse-drawn combination wagon the chemical tank and the small kyle usually carried upon the driver's seat is but an incidental feature, the body of

the wagon being reserved for larger fire-engine hose. But in a properly designed automobile such apparatus can be sped to the scene of a fire with four to eight men at from 40 to 60 miles an hour. Thus for a fire in a small suburban dwelling, in the majority of cases, a chemical engine brought close to the house with its 200 feet of  $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch hose, is able to extinguish an incipient fire. Such motor cars are built with engines from 24 to 50 horse-power. Because of the peculiar service conditions they are usually of the air-cooled type to obviate danger of freezing in winter. The tanks vary in capacity. It is considered good practice to install two tanks, so that one can be refilled while the other is in use. It would seem desirable

that such chemical engines be supplied in the majority of fire departments to answer at once on the first alarm.

The next step in the progress of the small motor chemical engine was to make it larger and to add to its equipment. Accordingly combination engines were designed which not only carried the chemical equipment but also hose for the following steam engine, scaling ladders, tools and other apparatus, thus enabling the men to prepare the way for more serious operations and saving valuable time. In this field a number of very efficient types have been evolved.

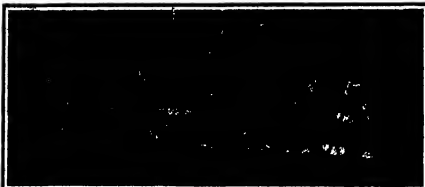
Next in mechanical development comes the motor (Continued on page 61)



A NEW YORK AUTOMOBILE HIGH-PRESSURE SERVICE WAGON.



AN AUTOMOBILE HOSE CART



FIRE CHIEF'S AUTOMOBILE



MOTOR-FIRE PUMP AT WORK



A COMBINATION TRUCK FOR SMALL COMMUNITIES.



A COMPLETE AUTOMOBILE FIRE DEPARTMENT.





their respective ends, and after correct adjustment are heated to a certain temperature, immediately to insure their camper, and melted solder is then run in which unites with the flange on the spring and securely combines the base and spring together in such a manner as to preclude any possibility of their becoming loosened.

The lower springs, i. e., those just above the point of the wheel's tread, are compressed under the weight of the vehicle, while those at the top do not touch the circumference. The spring portion is therefore practically floating, for at no part is there any rigid connection between the inner and outer parts of the wheel. When the wheel is in motion the springs become disengaged and move round like the spokes of a rigid wheel their places immediately being taken by others. The disengaged springs travel forward relatively to the rim in the direction in which the vehicle is moving. The result is that the central portion of the wheel makes a slightly greater number of revolutions than the outer rim in a given distance. At the same time, however, it is impossible for the inner part to travel round independently of the outer rim or tread of the wheel since it is at all times tightly in contact therewith at the point of the wheel's contact with the ground which is the point of application of the vehicle's weight. The rubbing of the outer extremities of the springs establishing such adhesion upon the surface of the interior of the rim as to prevent any possibility of slipping. Yet there is no perceptible wear or tear upon the two contact surfaces. In the case of the driving wheel the gripping power of the spring members is very considerably augmented by having the corrugated surface as already described.

The successive compression of the springs as the wheel revolves is quite continuous and is effected with the utmost smoothness as the spiral springs with their caps can be deflected in every direction without jerks or concussions occur which even with pneumatic tires are unpleasant features when traveling at high speed over bad road surfaces.

It may be thought that the absence of rigid connection between the inner and outer parts of the wheel may be disadvantageous but experience has quite conclusively demonstrated that no such drawback exists. It is practically impossible for any slipping between the two parts to occur even when the vehicle is badly driven. There is no friction between the rubbers in the free ends of the springs and the internal surface of the channel rim. The springs as it were walk round the inner circumference of the outer rim on a polished metallic surface and are disengaged with their due proportion of the car weight during each revolution. The moment the weight is applied to any spring the latter cannot be weight is released. Consequently there is an entire absence of friction and the rubber shoes on the spring caps will last as long as the wheel tire. Even in the rare event of the rubbers of the spring end becoming damaged it is an insignificant item in renewal but no such occurrence has yet been experienced though wheels have been driven for thousands of miles. Even the entrance of dust or mud has no deteriorating effect upon the two surfaces.

The wheel has been severely tested upon a 25.25 horse power Daimler motor in comparison with the heaviest make of English pneumatic tire. True the "Panflex" wheel is somewhat heavier than the pneumatic but it has been proved that such is no disadvantage. The mileage possible per gallon of fuel under the same conditions being approximately the same. Trials have shown that the average life of the outer solid rubber tire is from 10,000 to 15,000 miles which is about two and a half times that of the ordinary pneumatic type. Though in first cost the "Panflex" wheel is more expensive than the pneumatic this difference in initial outlay is soon recouped from the



A FAN DYNAMOMETER FOR TESTING MOTORS

reduced running expenses. It has been found that the cost per mile with the pneumatic averages about 1.28 cents as compared with 0.48 cent for the spring wheel—a difference in the latter a factor of 1.50 cents. Moreover as the wheel itself is practically everlasting the renewal charges are limited to the solid rubber tire which costs much less than a pneumatic of the same dimensions and the rubber caps of the spring members. Occasionally as the result of a very severe concussion or jolt a spring might break. This can be easily and quickly replaced on the road, but as the deflection of the spring is limited in every direction by the central tube the stress to which the steel is subjected need be no greater than that in the side springs supporting the automobile. Such an eventuality is therefore remote. Again with this wheel in



LAMBERT AUTOMOBILE RAILWAY CAR BUILT FOR HARRIMAN BEACH ROADS

view of the ingenuity of its construction the ever existing danger of side slipping is reduced to a negligible quantity owing to the flexibility of the wheel.

#### AN AUTOMOBILE CAR FOR RAILWAYS

The accompanying illustration shows a special car ordered by H. H. Harriman before his death which is to be used on a private road running from a point on the Erie Railroad to the Harriman private residence. The car is a Lambert friction drive and was ordered for the purpose of ascertaining whether a gasoline car from 10 to 16 passengers could still run more economically than steam cars on branch roads on the Harriman lines. Whether a car of this character will come into general use will depend upon the result of experiments to be made.

#### AN AUTOMOBILE SUFFEE TENDER

A novel automobile tender has been devised by Mr. G. Reeves. Mounted in the body across the rear axle is a three-burner gasoline stove connected with a one-gallon gasoline tank. Next forward is a receptacle in which is fitted a complete cooking outfit, each article nesting and telescoping into the other. The outfit consists of two frying pans, four boiling vessels of the pot twenty serving plates three sauce pans and eight soap tins. To the left of the cooking outfit is a three-hole vegetable roller with top lid for large cooking spoons cake turners carving forks etc. To the right is a galvanneal iron lined refrigerator containing six one-pint glass omelet ice receptacles and large meat tray.

Immediately forward of the refrigerator and extending to the end of the bed is a seven-gallon water cooler. To the left of the water cooler is a thirteen drawer cabinet intended for all grocers and cooking staples knives forks spoons tea towels, table covers, etc. In the little open court there is just room for two telescoping dish pans to disappear.

The accompanying picture showing the kitchen open indicates that the two covering lids when opened out form two spacious serving tables. These lids are cov-

ered on the inside with padded cloth, and on the outside with waterproof ducking. The meeting edges of one cover is provided with a patent leather flap and is held in place in transit by two large straps which buckle securely and make the tender rain and dust proof. A small brass soap and fork is also furnished. A neat little folding dining table is strapped to the inside of one of these lids.

An extra boiler a cooker for emergency a pocket and a camp lantern strapped to an outside bracket complete the outfit.

The refrigerator and water cooler are fitted with drain cocks. A rigid pair of folding legs is provided to support the end of the body when disconnected from the axle.

The wheels have rubber tires and the several parts are so accurately made that the tender moves even at twenty to twenty-five miles speed without noise and takes corners perfectly.

The tender weighs 475 pounds and the extra draft on the automobile is scarcely perceptible. It has been used in serving a great many roadside dinners and its entire practicability for such service established beyond doubt.

#### A FAN DYNAMOMETER

The standard type of fan dynamometer shown in the accompanying photograph has been devised by Joseph Tracy. It consists essentially of a metal standard carrying a horizontal steel shaft in large ball bearings. One end of this shaft is connected with the motor under test by a universally jointed extension shaft. The other end carries an overhung two-bladed fan as shown. On the dynamometer shaft a small pulley fixed to a boss on the rear of the universal joint is belted to a large pulley on the special tachometer which is mounted on top of the housing that carries the dynamometer shaft.

The tachometer of the standard fan dynamometer is provided with a double scale and single point the inner scale showing the revolutions per minute and the outer scale the horse-power developed. The two scales per minute scale is graduated progressively by divisions of 20 revolutions from 200 to 2,000 r. p. m. The horse-power scale gives a minimum reading of 1 horse-power at 400 revolutions and a maximum reading of 70 horse-power at 1,800 revolutions. Consequently at all ordinary rates of motor speed a simultaneous reading of r. p. m. and horse-power can be obtained without any computation.

The standard fan dynamometer can be employed in testing motors on the block by making suitable connection between the jointed dynamometer shaft and the motor shaft clutch or flywheel. It can also be used to test an automobile motor in position on the chassis by disconnecting the propeller shaft and substituting for it the jointed shaft of the dynamometer.

The standard dynamometer is designed to test no form of undrilled cast iron. However by the use of thin blades of greater or less area and suitable tachometer scales the range of absorption and measurement of power can be varied between wide limits.

The Tenth National Automobile Show in Madison Square Garden afforded a good opportunity of inspecting the product of representative American makers. The exhibition brought out some novelties in construction and design which showed a gratifying tendency toward standardization. That the modern every day motor car, previously known as a stock car, has left the minor road of experimentation and is now a practical and useful machine was strongly emphasized by the many performances in hill-climbing touring and racing contests of the day. There is a comprehensive display at the Garden of duplicate models of the stock cars that competed successfully in the various sport events of the year. Some of the original cars are shown. Thanks to the adoption of certain standards a new model need no longer be put into eight years of testing before it is entered in competition with other cars. Recently victories have been won by certain makes of cars that had scarcely competed in previous events.

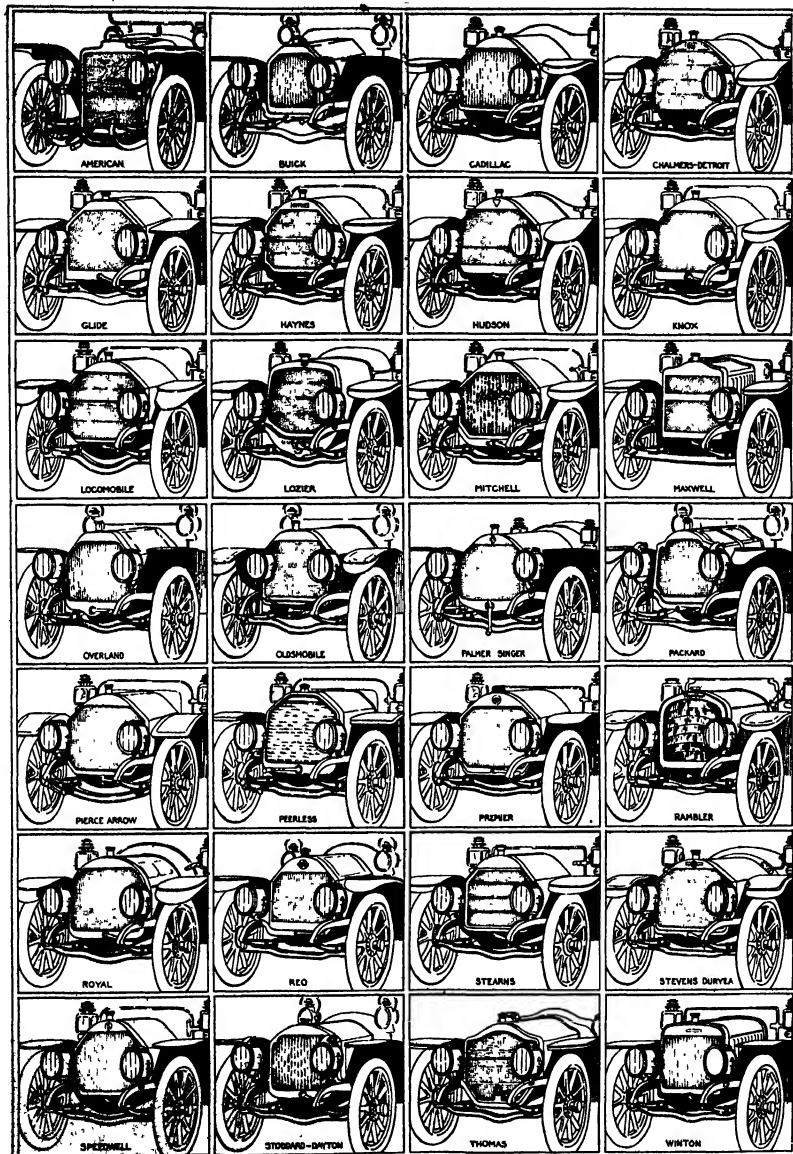


THE BUFFET TENDER WHEN OPEN



THE BUFFET TENDER IN USE





Often you have wondered what make of car was that which sped past your eyes or around a curve. Although most automobiles are more or less alike in general appearance, they differ in certain features. The radiator and engine bonnet are among these. With the help of this chart, the cars here presented can be identified by their radiators and engine bonnets.

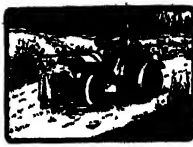
AN AUTOMOBILE IDENTIFICATION CHART.





# MAKING YOUR OWN REPAIRS.

BY ROGER B. WHITMAN.



To one who is familiar with the methods employed in the average automobile repair shop it is not surprising that a mere car consists of the size of their bills. The principal charge is usually for labor at so much an hour but there is no way in which the owner can assure himself that part of the time charged for was not wasted. The difficulty of checking a labor charge is an indictment to a mild form of swindling and it must be admitted that there are shops in which an hour's work by an untrained boy is charged at the rate for skilled labor. This again time may be wasted unintentionally. It is not unusual to find that after assembling an engine or a gear set the work must be undone in order to fit an overlooked part or to correct an adjustment that should have been attended to in the first place and in such an event the total time occupied is usually charged to the owner of the car.

When the prospective purchaser of an automobile is of a properly inquiring turn of mind he will ask his friends to let him see their bills for repairs and maintenance and will probably gain the impression that automobile is an expensive diversion. If he has any mechanical ability however he will realize that three-quarters of the work charged for could have been done with simple tools and an ordinary knowledge of their use.

Aside from the economy of it the owner who does his own work becomes so familiar with the mechanism that it is instinctive with him to recognize the signs of coming trouble. He corrects faults at their inception and by so doing he obviates an otherwise inevitable delay and expense.

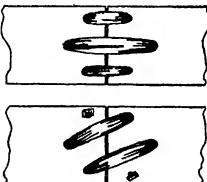
The following notes are offered as suggestions to the owner who desires to remain self-independent of the repair shop.

**VALVE GRINDING.**  
At more or less frequent intervals the valves of a gasoline engine and particularly the exhaust valves will become roughened and pitted. When they are in this condition they cannot be expected to retain the compressed gases and in consequence the engine can not deliver its full power. It then becomes necessary to grind in the valves which is accomplished by introducing an abrasive between the valve and its seat and rotating the valve under pressure until the surfaces are worn smooth. This is usually considered to be a job for a repair man but as it is patience rather than skill that is required the car owner need not hesitate to undertake it.

Before grinding can begin the valve must be relieved from the pressure of its spring. In many engines the valve seat and spring are contained in a cage that is easily removed and the detaching of the spring from the stem is an easy matter. When the valve seat is integral with the cylinder the spring may be compressed by means of a special tool or by a flat metal bar used as a lever. To prevent the valve from moving a small block of wood may be placed between the valve disk and the valve cap. When the spring is compressed the device through which it acts on the valve stem may be removed the valve may then be taken out through the valve cap opening.

When a valve is in bad condition the surface of the disk and seat are rough and pitted. It is not easy to continue the grinding process until the entire width of the surfaces is smooth for a narrower strip of belt is sufficient to retain the gases. If it is continuous and uninterrupted. Finely powdered emery mixed with machine oil is a satisfactory abrasive but whatever is used great care must be taken to keep it out of the cylinder and away from the bearings. The passage between the valve pocket and cylinder should be tightly plugged with cotton waste a string tied to it for lifting it in and out when the work is completed. A badly worn valve the first grinding is done with coarse emery which is later replaced by a finer

grade to give the requisite smoothness. To apply the abrasive dip the finger tip in machine oil and then to dry emery the small quantity that adheres being applied to the valve surface. The valve is then replaced on its seat and rotated by means of a screw driver. A bit brace or hand drill may be used but excellent results may be obtained by means of a 1/8 inch or 1/4 inch screwdriver with a round grooved handle which is held between the extended palms. A con-



LACING A VALVE BELT

tinuous rotary motion in one direction will tend to wear the valve oval and it is necessary to turn it first in one direction and then equally in the other. A slight back and forth motion of the hands will give this result and as only a light pressure is necessary it should not prove tiring.

In order to preserve the true (circular form of the valve and seat the valve should be lifted after twenty or thirty turns and replaced on its seat in a new position. To facilitate this a few turns of a helical spring may be placed in the valve pocket under the disk its size and strength being such that the valve will be slightly lifted from its seat when pressure is taken off the screwdriver. The location of the spring is shown in the diagram.

When the valve surfaces appear smooth all traces of the emery should be washed away with gasoline or kerosene being taken that it does not go into the cylinder valve stem and push rod guides or other bearing parts. To test the fit make pencil marks on the valve seat and give the valve a turn or two with the screwdriver. If the fit is correct the marks will be erased.

The replacing of the valve spring is greatly simplified if it is compressed in a vise and bound in the compressed state by light iron or copper wire passed through it lengthwise. The spring may then be

noticed the exact position of a piece before he takes it off and in general is unnecessary for the foreman that would go far to simplify the reassembling. If time is not an object he will eventually get all the parts properly rebuilt but if he aspires to be a good workman he must learn to be methodical in everything that he does.

The first step in dismantling any part of an automobile is to ascertain what holds it in position. What other parts may have to be displaced in order to get at it and what parts may be released by its removal. To take off an inlet manifold for instance it may first be necessary to remove the carburetor which in turn will require the disconnection of the gasoline pipe and throttle control.

The plan of action having been determined work may begin. It will greatly facilitate reassembling if nuts bolts screws and other small parts are placed in boxes the boxes belonging to the inlet pipe in one, inspection plate bolts in another and so on. If these parts are laid indiscriminately on the engine and frame they are only too likely to fall into hand holes and other openings and aside from the difficulty of recovering them they must then be sorted.

Where several parts are alike in shape and size—the case for instance—should not be taken for granted that they are interchangeable. Much may have been fitted to its particular location and on the chance of this they should be marked before being removed so that there may be no error in returning them. Home manufacturers are careful to mark all parts by their name or figure or with a prick punch and when this is the case the marks should be followed absolutely in the case of parts it is not so in the case of second-hand marks at the point of teaching. To reassemble them correctly it is then necessary only to place the marked tooth of one gear between the two marked teeth of the other.

When taking off a cylinder the connecting rod should be blocked or supported. Otherwise the weight of the piston will bring it sharply against the crank pin which may suffer. The connecting rods and cylinders are to remain off for any length of time they should be placed with cotton waste at all open ends and several thicknesses of paper should be tied around the pistons.

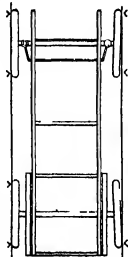
In reassembling, all nuts bolts and screws should be cleaned and oiled before being replaced. Every bolt has its wrench of appropriate size with which it is hardly possible to exert a breakage strain. When an 18 inch wrench is used on a 1/4 inch bolt there is every possibility of the bolt head being twisted off before the operator realizes that it is in danger.

If the parts of a properly made machine do not come off with reasonable freedom when the bolts and nuts are removed force should be avoided until it is proven to be necessary. Taper pins keys and unsecured set screws are frequently responsible and as they must be accurately replaced their location and direction should be noted and remembered.

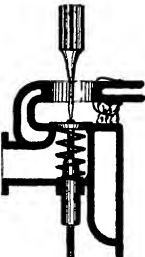
It is poor policy to rush a piece of work and after a few experiences with over pressure water and gasoline tanks that could be avoided by slowing more time to the job in hand the motorist will find his shop the motto "Go slow, go sure," and abide by it.

**LUBRICATING THE SPRINGS.**  
It is the practice among automobile manufacturers to fit grease cups to the shafts and eyes of the springs and the use of a cup is indicated to take care of the springs to turn down these cups occasionally. It should be noted however that the spring leaves require lubrication at least once a season. There is a continual sliding motion at the top of the leaves when the car is in action. If the surfaces are not lubricated they will be subject to undue wear and eventual breaking. The proper lubricant is a petroleum oil of the lightest grade.

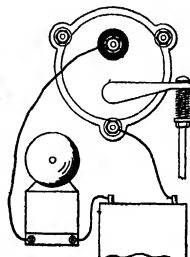
(Continued on page 64)



LACING OF THE WHEELS



GRINDING A VALVE



TYING AN SPRING

## COMPARES WITH THE COSTLIEST CARS AS A PERFECT SMALL DIAMOND WITH A LARGE ONE



4 Cylinder. 20 H. P. \$750 F. O. B.  
Sliding Gears. Bosch Detroit  
Magneto

# Hupp

A small diamond is relatively just as good and just as valuable as a large one.

In the same sense the Hupmobile is precisely as fine as the largest, the best and the most expensive cars made.

We make the comparison because we want you to learn to associate the Hupmobile in your mind with the finest cars you know.

The Hupmobile claims the right (and that right is conceded by discriminating owners) to travel side by side with the best products of motordom.

It confesses no delinquencies, admits no infirmities; concedes no advantage save size and carrying capacity, to cars costing twice and thrice its price.

Observe the personnel of its ownership in your own city.

Note that the majority of men who drive a Hupmobile are the men who know good cars—whose private garages, perhaps, houses several fine cars of other types.

The Hupmobile was built to fill a particular need—to supply a special want—to furnish a type of car that was lacking.

Its creators could see no reason why a car carrying two passengers should not be just as good—just as sound and just as trustworthy—at the best big car built.

Every part that contributes to power and speed and staunchness in the Hupmobile is precisely as good and fine as the same part in the best big car.

The two are mates in quality.

The Hupmobile will go anywhere that the big car will go; climb any hill the big car will climb; and do anything the big car will do except that it will not carry the same number of passengers.

When you buy the ordinary car of moderate price, you say to yourself:—

"I am getting just the sort of a car indicated by the price—a moderately good car."

When you buy a Hupmobile, on the contrary, you buy a quality

and a degree of excellence with which the price has nothing to do.

If the Hupmobile were any bigger, it could not be made as good without increasing the price.

These things (which are literally true) will explain to you what perhaps, you had not understood before—why you have encountered in the year past so many enthusiastic partisans of the Hupmobile.

Everybody, if you will stop to think backward a little bit, has seemed to say kind things about the Hupmobile.

They have said these things about the Hupmobile because it is the newly good kind of a moderate sized car which we have just described.

A year ago there were less than 100 Hupmobiles in commission.

Today 5,000 are being built, as rapidly as excellence of workmanship with the finest materials will permit of hurry—to satisfy a demand which sprang up in incredible volume before the first hundred cars were completed.

Of course, you want to know all about a car which has been favored with the warmest approval ever extended by the American motor-buying public to any motor car.

Even if you own a car to which you are strongly attached, you would like to have placed before you all the information which will shed light upon a condition so unprecedented as the Hupmobile has created.

And if you are wavering in your choice of a car, your desire to know is even stronger.

Sign and send the coupon. It will bring you not only the Hupmobile literature, picking up and describing the 1919 Hupmobile in every detail.

It will bring in addition, the name and address of the Hupmobile dealer nearest your home or the one nearest you.

We will put you in direct touch with the car, so that you can see it and satisfy yourself as to the literal truth of every statement we have

Clip the coupon and send it now

### SPECIFICATIONS

**ENGINE**—4 cylinder, 20 H. P., 3½ inch bore, 3¼ inch stroke; L-head type; water cooled; offset crank shaft; fan bladed fly wheel in front; Parsons white bronze bearings; noiseless cam shaft.

**TRANSMISSION**—Selective sliding gears in extension bolted to crank case; shifting without noise.

**CLUTCH**—Multiple disc type; self-adjusting; enclosed in gear case; running in oil.

**REAR AXLE**—Shaft drive; Hyatt roller and New Departure bearings; shaft and universal joint enclosed and lubricated by oil from crank case through transmission.

**BRAKES**—Two foot and two emergency (internal expanding) lined with Thermoid on rear hubs.

**IGNITION**—Bosch high tension magneto, doing away with spark coil, batteries and connecting wires.

**TIRES**—30 x 3 inches.

**WHEEL BASE**—86 inches.

**TREAD**—86 inches.

**SPRINGS**—Semi-elliptical front, patented cross spring rear.

**EQUIPMENT**—Two side and tail lamps, dragon horn, tools, repair kit, pump.

**WEIGHT**—1100 pounds regular equipment.

As an object lesson, three Hupmobiles were driven through the biting winter weather and deep snow, from Detroit to New York for the Grand Central Palace Show.

## HUPP MOTOR CAR COMPANY

DEPT. Q

DETROIT, MICH.

Name

Address

Hupp  
Motor  
Car Co.

Dept. Q  
DETROIT, MICH.

Send 1919 Hupmobile literature and name and address of Hupmobile dealer





## THE MOTOR CAR AND THE BIND.

(Continued from page 61.)  
 Permanent binders containing an asphaltic base, the residues of such petroleum, the heavy tars, pitch, and numerous oils, tar, and asphalt preparations. In addition to these, a few special materials have been the subject of experiment, such, for example, as the waste product from the food and cane sugar factories. In some instances gels and microchem of potash have been added to oil or tar emulsions to cause the residue upon the road surface to harden after the volatile products have evaporated. Waste sulphite liquors from wood pulp have been employed with some success in a concentrated form, and, in fact, the last might be indefinitely extended. The essential requisite in a dust preventive is its binding power, and it naturally follows that the experiments will cover a wide field.

Water, while usually the most abundant and cheapest material, is very often, because of the frequency with which it must be applied, the most expensive of all. Its binding power is almost entirely due to capillarity. The value of the salt solutions commonly used lies in the hygroscopic character of the dissolved substance, which, having considerable affinity for water, keeps the road surface in a moist condition long after a surface treated with water alone would have become dry through evaporation. The light oils and tars, as well as the oil and tar emulsions, are dependent for their effect upon the penetration by the road surface of a comparatively small amount of true binding base after the volatile products have evaporated. This base proves effective only as long as it retains its binding power. When the binding power is destroyed, it is necessary to apply more material. If the base is an exceptional one, the accumulated products finally harden the road surface and prevent wear to some extent.

The heavy oils and tars differ from the lighter products in that they contain a much greater amount of asphaltum, which constitutes the binding base. The results are, therefore, of a more permanent character, and hence the name permanent binders. The semi-solid and solid preparations usually contain a still greater amount of binder. With some exceptions, all of the true binders are bitumens, and these bitumens may be of either natural or artificial origin.

The usual method of applying these materials to the road surface is by sprinkling. The temporary binders can usually be applied cold, but the permanent binders, because of their much greater viscosity, must be heated until sufficiently fluid in England and France the use of hot tar is practiced to a large extent and their methods of application have been highly developed. Machines are now in general use which are self-propelling and in which the tar is heated and then applied to the road surface as a spray under high pressure. These so-called "tar sprayers" are not only very economical in the use of tar, but insure a more uniform distribution and better penetration of the road surface than it is possible to obtain in almost any other way.

In the construction of a dustless road, the crucial question is that of cost. Automobiles have but little destructive effect on pavements, but they are in general so costly for country roads. The effort must be to develop a form of construction which will withstand that automobile traffic and at the same time be within the financial resources of the country. This is largely being done at present by the use of a bituminous binder instead of the rock dust. The two methods generally employed are known as the penetration and the mixing method. In the former, the hot liquid binder is sprinkled or sprayed over the stone and allowed to penetrate through the voids between the stones usually to a depth of two or three inches. Some of the devices in use force the binder into the road surface by means of heavy rollers. In the mixing



## "This Car Can Be Run 5,000 Miles a Year at an Average Total Cost of \$3.98 a week"

Here is a Maxwell Touring Car that will interest thousands of men who have always considered an automobile beyond their means—not because they couldn't afford to buy one, but because they have felt they couldn't afford the cost of maintaining one. It is true that the expensive "up-keep" of most automobiles has put them beyond the reach of men with moderate incomes. Not so with the Maxwell. Our cars have always been the most economical to run, as over 20,700 Maxwell owners have proved. Our constant aim has been to make automobiles that the mass of the people could afford to own. We have kept right on from year to year improving Maxwells in every smallest detail that would reduce their operating expense—increasing strength and durability, decreasing weight, and simplifying construction.

Now we are satisfied that in our new 4-Cylinder, 30 H. P. Touring Car we have the great "Economy Car" that would actually cost to run. This is what the majority of men want to know, and this is just what you don't find out about other automobiles—before you buy them.

### BASED ON FACTS

When we tell you that this big handsome Maxwell Touring car can be run 5,000 miles a year at an average total cost of \$3.98 a week (or \$207.28 a year) we are not theorizing. These figures include the total cost of gasoline oil and grease required to run this car 5,000 miles, the cost of repairs, the cost of new tires (one complete (which may not be needed until the end of the year), Repairs shown this to be a correct average, established by Maxwell owners. How can we better show the low cost of keeping a Maxwell than by giving in dollars and cents just what \$3.98 miles of motoring cost \$3.98 a week? And this letter—cost of hundreds we receive unsolicited—

"During the past year I have driven my new 4-cylinder Maxwell, equipped approximately with 5,000 miles a year. My experience has shown that this car can be run 5,000 miles a year at an average total cost of \$3.98 a week."

Gasoline	320 Gallons	\$16.00
Oil	140 Barrels	\$14.00
Grease	100 lbs.	\$4.00
Repairs	500	\$5.00
Tires	2	\$20.00
New tires mileage and labor		\$20.00

No running cost but \$3.98 from these items the above figures, based on the beginning of the season I bought five new tires and tubes. As a matter of fact these have been used by a Maxwell but year without changing its engine. This is a record that has never been equalled by any car at any price. These books will be sent by return mail without cost to you—just reply by mail.

E. L. CALKINS

NOTE—Familiarity of this letter may be required.

### These Books Free

We want to send without cost to you, a copy of our magazine "The Maxwell" and a copy of our book "How to Buy an Automobile"—a practical treatise on motor cars. Our latest catalog describing and picturing every car we manufacture, together with other interesting books of facts. One of these books giving the details of the Maxwell run made by a Maxwell but year without changing its engine. This is a record that has never been equalled by any car at any price. These books will be sent by return mail without cost to you—just reply by mail.

MAXWELLS IN USE TODAY 30,764.

## MAXWELL-BRISCOE MOTOR CO.

DEW STREET, TARRYTOWN, N. Y.

Southfield, B. I.

Providence, B. I.

Kingston, Pa., N. Y.

New Castle, Ind.

Send under Sales Order

method, the stones and binder are thoroughly mixed, either by hand or machine, so that each stone is covered with a thin film of the binder. This method in general insures the better and more even distribution of the binder throughout the road surface.

The material used for the binder varies very largely with different sections in England and France the tars are used very largely. In the west and portions of the United States, the heavy asphaltic oils of California are used almost exclusively, while in other sections we find that tar, petroleum oils, liquid asphalt, and various proprietary compounds are being used.

One of the chief causes of the great number of failures which have been recorded in the use of bituminous road materials is the failure of the user, as well as manufacturer, to understand certain fundamental principles. To many, a tar is simply a tar and oil an oil, while in reality there is a vast difference sometimes even in the tars produced at the same works. The oils also range from those of a paraffine base to those almost wholly asphaltic. Thus a concise knowledge of the character of the product, the process followed in its preparation, and the effect which varying conditions will have upon it is necessary in order to avoid costly mistakes.

### THE MIDDLE WEST AND THE AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRY

(Continued from page 64.)

that the freight has usually been added to the purchase price of the car, and has gone against the consumer, there are many cases in the past, and there will be many more in future, where the cars are sold directly at the retail price. For that reason, the location of factories in the middle West is ideal, for it is in truth the center of the automobile-buying public.

Some cases, cities have been made and their population doubled and trebled by big motorcar factories, as in the case of Flint, Mich., and Detroit, Mich. Such cities have had a tremendous boom in real estate, and in business generally, owing to the influx of 50,000 to 6,000 families, who have moved into the most fertile position on the map because motorcar factories were established within their limits. Besides supplying employment to laborers in large numbers, such money has been made by the makers in the various enterprises. This has been especially true among the makers of wheels, tires, frames, and other parts. In a general way it may be said that the parts makers have made more money than the automobile builders, as the latter have expended greater sums of money in experimenting.

The total capital of the automobile manufacturers in this country is about \$100,000,000. The vast majority of the plants will run into some extraordinary figures, and these values are rapidly increasing. As for the output for 1915, it is likely to exceed 200,000 automobiles in use in this country. In a general way, it may be said that the employees number some 150,000 in motorcar factories with employees in parts factories more than 100,000. America may be safely considered the home of the motorcar, and a considerable part of the credit for this is due to the fact that it has brought about by the tremendous buying power of the middle classes, who demand a car which can be cared for by the owner with the least possible expense and effort.

These low priced cars have been made possible by ideal factory methods and big production. This necessitated their being standardized, something that may be said to be original with the American maker, who feels that any one of ten thousand parts should be made to fit any one car turned out by his company. By working on big productions and

# THE KNOBS WILL STOP YOUR SKIDDING

## THE MORGAN & WRIGHT NOBBY TREAD

**a new non-skid tire designed and made by Morgan & Wright, makers of "Good Tires." As a safeguard against skidding and drive-shipping, it has never been approached in non-skid tire construction.**

The idea, thick knobs, made of the toughest rubber it is possible to produce, sets the road like a magnet and prevents side slips or drive slips even on wet asphalt, pavements or roads covered with snow or ice. It has passed the experimental tests. Reports from all sections show that not only is effectiveness, but also in service quality it is vastly superior to the existing styles of treaded tires.

The tread knobs expose nearly as much surface to the wear of the road as a plain tread and consequently wear down less in any kind of road.

Made of a white rubber stock, it is by odds the "cheapest looking" tire on the market and will last longer than any other tire on any car to which it is equipped.

## MORGAN & WRIGHT NOBBY TREAD TIRE

MORGAN & WRIGHT, DETROIT

BRANCHES, AGENCIES OR DEALERS EVERYWHERE

keeping prices down, there is little doubt that the American maker will sooner or later figure in the foreign trade. This is particularly true in connection with the small, medium priced car, a field that has been neglected by the foreigners. With the rapid growth of the business there have been developed many new capitalists of industry, who as pioneers have blazed the way for motor-car trade, and who are certain to be important factors in future industrial life.

### The Modern Electric Automobile.

(Continued from page 51)  
current consumption. This arrangement is necessary to keep any excessive rush of current at any time away from the battery. Nothing is more detrimental to the capacity and the life of the battery. A rapid increase of current flow and speed from step to step will result in a jerking action in the whole driving mechanism, which of course means rapid wear and possible breakage of the driving parts. It is easier to break a string with a short jerk than with an even smooth pull.

The limited power carried in one storage of the battery has forced the designer of electric carriages to avoid as far as possible all losses due to friction in the method of transmission of the power from the motor to the wheels as well as in the bearings. The high-speed motor, with its advantage of light weight and high efficiency in starting and in climbing hills necessitates, in the most approved methods of construction a double reduction of speed. This means that the motive power is first transmitted with a reduction of speed to a countershaft, and then to the rear axle. The first reduction of the countershaft is accomplished in different ways and with varying success. The earlier carriages used metal spur gears for this purpose, but they proved to be unsatisfactory on account of their noisy running and great loss of power. It may be mentioned here that where

there is noise there is friction, and consequently where there is friction there is loss of power. The next step of improvement was to make the one gear of compressed rawhide. A little loss of noise in running resulted. But this construction was still far from being perfect. After passing through the stages of worn and unrun-toothed gears, a perfect transmission was obtained when the Renault silent chain was introduced. This chain is self-adjustable to pitch after wear. In flexibility and high efficiency, it is an ideal, high-speed transmission device. It is found today on every high grade electric car. If kept in proper alignment and well adjusted the life of this chain is indefinite. To receive the best service, it must be dust-proof, lubricated, and kept well lubricated.

The power is transmitted from countershaft to the rear wheels on all up-to-date machines by means of roller chains or through a shaft and bevel gears. The advantage of one type over the other has been much disputed. The greatest objection to the roller chains is their noisy running, their rapid wear, their exposure to dirt and dust, and their loss in efficiency after wear. Some reasons for the superiority of the shaft and bevel gear transmission are its quietness, its cleanliness, its long life, and its increased efficiency after use. Its durability is due to the fact that the bevel gears run permanently in oil and that they are lubricated. Moreover, the shaft drive does not require any adjustment, and when well designed, all parts of the running gear and power plant will stay in absolute alignment. The necessary adjustment of the double chain drive will soon create a variation in the distance from the front to the rear axle on both sides, for two chains will never stretch alike. This disadvantage will affect the steering decrease the life of the tires, and result in a loss of power. If the chain sprockets are

not in proper alignment after adjustment the chains will rub sideways on the sprockets, which will, of course, shorten the life of the transmission and result in a loss of efficiency.

It would be very interesting to measure the distances of both axles on either side of double chain-driven cars after they have been in service in the hands of the average driver and under the care of the average garage for several months to find out if the axles are still parallel. Absence of friction is an absolutely necessary factor in the construction of electric automobiles. For this reason the proper type of bearings must be applied to the motor, countershaft, and wheels. The ball bearing the highest achievement in bearing construction, has proven to be superior to any other type, and will be found today in any high grade automobile. Once properly packed with grease this bearing will not require any attention for several thousand miles. If proper slams for the load to be carried are selected, no wear can be noticed.

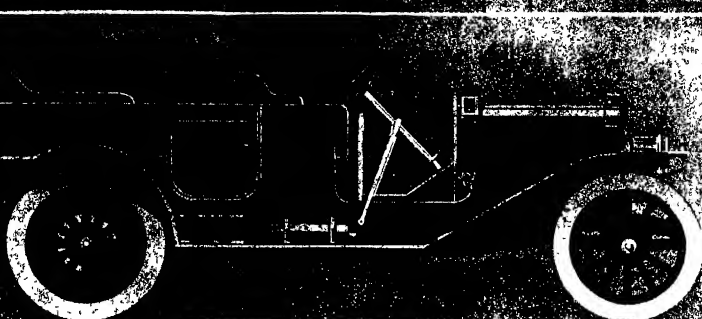
Every electric carriage should be equipped with reliable brakes. It is important that they should stop the car going forward as well as backward. It is not the number of brakes with which a car is equipped but their efficiency, which insure safety. Most modern cars are equipped with one of two types, namely the external brake in which a steel band is run over the drum either on the motor shaft or on the rear wheels, or the internal expanding brake attached to the rear wheels, which is commonly used and generally preferred. In this construction two brake shoes are fixed inside a drum. A small movement of the brake lever will cause the brake shoes to open out against the inner surface of the drum. The braking action should be applied at the rear wheels. All brakes attached to the motor, if used frequently, are detrimental to the motor and the transmission system. For this

reason also, the electric brake which seemed in older days to be inseparable from any electric vehicle, is condemned by the modern designer of electric conveyances. Even on the heavy electric street car it had to give room, on this account, to the air brakes. In many brakes the shoes or bands are operated through flexible steel cords, which is not the best arrangement. A system of steel rods is to be preferred. In case two brakes are operated by a lever, a balancing bar should be inserted in the system to insure equal pressure on both brakes.

There influence the performance of an electric automobile more than may be imagined. Various designs of tires show a variation of up to fifty per cent in efficiency, so that the speed per single charge of the battery is affected. Special points to be borne in mind in the care of pneumatic tires are that rust as well as oil is very detrimental to them, and that it is necessary to keep tires well inflated.

If the storage battery of a few years ago be compared with the up-to-date battery, it will be found that a very much decreased weight with a large increase in capacity and durability has been obtained.

The various wire connections on an electric car should be laid with care, and the wire sizes should be large enough to carry the heaviest possible loads without loss of power. As far as possible, all leads should be carried directly from the battery to the controller, and then to the motor, and all connections should be tight and securely locked. One common fault in early cars was the loose hanging wires running in different directions, without any attempt at a methodical arrangement. Good insulation is necessary. Because it is able to resist acid, weather, and mechanical strain, rubber of good quality and sufficient size has proven to be the best material for this purpose.



## Here is a Special Car for a few Select Buyers

Price, for either Standard Touring \$2500  
or Torpedo Bodies

**ABOUT** three hundred prospective purchasers who have it in mind to pay from four to five thousand dollars can "get in" on this made-to-order Springfield for 1910.

For the past three years a limited number of these cars (about 100 each year) have been made for special buyers, who have desired certain features in their cars not to be found in any cars on the market regardless of price.

Hence the Springfield has come to be known as the "made-to-order" car.

Until this year no attempt has been made to manufacture more than the few cars, which were easily sold by private sale to the class of buyers to whom a car of this character appeals.

For this reason practically no advertising has ever appeared concerning the Springfield.

This year, however, we have increased our facilities, and hope to be able to supply in the neighborhood of **three hundred cars**.

The fact that we **manufacture** practically every part that enters into the Springfield makes it impossible (even if we were so inclined) to make them in the quantities possible with an assembled car.

No apology is made for the low price we have placed upon the car. This price enables us to supply the best material of every kind it is possible to buy, and in addition gives us a fair profit.

We are willing to let the specifications speak for the quality of material used and the general character of the car.

The automobile dealer, familiar with all makes, will immediately recognize in these specifications and the accompanying illustrations an automobile of the strict de-luxe type—a car of the character that will always have a ready sale among those who are in a position to buy the **best cars**.

### SPECIFICATIONS:

**MOTOR**—Four cylinder, vertical, water cooled, 1 inch bore, 4 1/2 inch stroke.

**VALVES**—All on one side, horizontally, operated by single cam shaft with valve lifters with shims, and mounted on a flexible Ball Bearing. Intake Valve Pump and Intake Valve mounted on pressure insulated Ammeter Ball Bearings.

**TRANSMISSION**—Automatic type, sliding gear, three speeds forward and reverse; mounted on parallel Improved F. J. A. Ammeter Ball Bearings. All gears and shafts of best-known Chrome Vanadium Steel.

**REAR AXLE**—One piece axle with Chrome Vanadium Steel housing of the axle drive. Axle type: Gear and Chrome Vanadium Steel, ball mounted, secured on greater Insulating Ammeter Ball Bearings.

**FRONT AXLE**—Special 1 inch drop spring in one piece, of chrome plated Chrome Vanadium Steel, with ball bearing motor bearings.

**FRAMES**—Pressed steel, mild steel.

**SPRINGS**—Fourteen inch, semi-elliptic, three-quarter section, double eye.

**LIGHTS**—Large spark, 4-inch coil, no dash, vacuum heavy double system with gasoline Type D-4 Bank magnets two spark plugs to each cylinder.

**LUBRICATION**—Positive automatic oil system enclosed in steel case of motor.

**DRIVE**—Shaft, with large bevel gears of best, treated Chrome Vanadium Steel.

**BRAKES**—Two independent systems, hand and foot type, Ball Bearing lined. Foot brake 14 inches in diameter, operated by cam arrangement.

**STEERING**—Positive type, five or seven passenger, short wheel and independent in center head ball bearing.

**TIRES**—30 x 3 inches size, 16 x 3 inches size, Quick Discharge tires.

**STEERING GEAR**—Jaw-wheel, 10 inch wheel, controlling mechanism on top of wheel.

**GASOLINE CAPACITY**—Two 20 gallon tank, three and one-half inches.

**MUFFLER**—Four inch diameter, four and one-half inches in length.

**RADIATOR**—Large double, regular in type, very large and efficient.

**CARBURETOR**—Standard four inch type, auxiliary air valve and float.

**WHEELS**—30 x 3 inches.

**WHEELS**—30 x 3 inches.

**GEAR RATIO**—11-1.

**CLAMPING**—10 inches.

**LUBRICANTS**—Grease, three inch measure, pressure, no.

**WEIGHT**—2,000 pounds.

**EQUIPMENT**—Two inch and three inch lamps, general in type, both, one and repair tools.

**PRICE**—\$2,500.

Correspondence Solicited

The Springfield Motor Car Company

311 Monroe Street  
SPRINGFIELD, ILL.



### HOW TO OVERHAUL A CAR

(Continued from page 65)

son for this is that the shafts, especially gear shafts, wear down and must be ground true and no manufacturer seems to appreciate the useful use of boring reamers bushings slightly under size. The pilot bushing being solid must be specially made to suit the shaft. Aside from this one a skillful amateur can make a good job of scraping his own bushings if he has a suitable set of scrapers and time and patience. Red lead is used to test the fit. Of course the gear case is not come out of the car and at intervals the bushing case are bolted down tight and the shaft turned to determine whether it is tight or free and whether it makes contact all over.

In refitting gear shafts and bushings it is necessary not only to achieve a proper fit but to keep the shafts absolutely parallel. If they are not the gear teeth will not wear squarely across their face but will wear away at their corners as exaggerated in the dotted position, Fig. 4.

In the matter of gear replacements the best result is naturally gained by replacing it in the working gear. If either is badly worn also otherwise the best result will have to run against a bad profile and would wear away sooner. If the car has also chain drive the differential shaft bushings will need refitting at the same time. The parts of a differential which wear fastest are the bushings A of the spur or bevel pinions B (Fig. 5) since these are the hardest, being subjected to take the differential apart it may be necessary to file the ends of bush or through bolts holding it together. In that case the nuts should be re-drilled in thick nuts so that the bolts can be headed over again on reassembling. (The bolts in Fig. 6 do not go through.) It is very important not to give the pinions a twist. The differential is the chance of working loose and the same applies to the bolts holding the change gears. Another point that is difficult to remember is that the differential is not to be removed from the car but the bearing between the differential and gear hub and the shaft into which the hub of the differential shaft extends. Take care to run in the pin or ball bearings in the case with the shaft or gear hub turning inside of it whenever the car goes around a turn. sooner or later new bushings are needed.

If oil is used in the gear case as it must be if plain bushings are used in stead of ball bearings it becomes something of a problem to lubricate the bearings effectively without excessive leakage of oil. The writer suggests a thin grease screen (Fig. 7) over the interior oil pockets to exclude steel grit worn from the gears. In order to prevent escape of oil from the ends of the bushings a felt ring is necessary (Fig. 8). This ring would cause the oil near it to become stagnant were it not for a special oil groove B which would be clipped on tightly around the bushing and connected with a groove C by which oil entering it may return to the interior of the case. In this provision particles of dirt settling into the end of the bearing would accumulate and cut the shaft.

In the rear axle of a shaft-driven car the thing most likely to need adjustment is the differential. There are various ways of getting at it depending on the design of the axle casing. If the axle is divided vertically in the fore and aft central plane the rear springs must be jacked up and the axle disconnected from the axle halves of the axle drawn asunder after taking off the wheel. A better arrangement is to have a removable cover plate on the casing through which the differential is the rigid and withdrawn. This is found especially in axle of the floating type with wheels running on ball or roller bearings on the ends of the axle tubes and driven by floating shafts extending from the differential to the clutch plates engaging the outer ends of the wheel hubs. To remove the differential the hub caps are first removed



Model "R" Runabout

**\$680.00**  
Without rumble seat With 14" solid rubber tires

**\$700.00**  
With rumble seat and 14" lach solid rubber tires

**\$730.00**  
Without rumble seat With pneumatic tires

**\$750.00**  
With rumble seat and pneumatic tires

## OUR NEW 1910 MODEL "R" RUNABOUT

No car offered this season at the price above is equal in value and service to the new Invincible Schacht Model R Runabout. Choice of equipment includes in range of \$680 to \$750 to meet suit the purchaser's requirements.

Our full line catalog includes all the celebrated line of Schacht Cars to choose from and we especially invite you to sign, with our agents or with us direct before purchasing any car this year.

## THE NEW 1910 INVINCIBLE SCHACHT LINE

You will appreciate the opportunity of selecting from a full line of cars on guaranteed delivery basis where the agent has a standard line to sell and the purchaser can pick just the car to suit his needs at a reasonable value received price. No such efficient dependable general utility car for town and country ready for delivery this season are equal to this line including one of the most popular cars of the year. The New Schacht Runabout above for \$680 and upward. Send your name for book containing full details and prices.

## MERCHANTS' DELIVERY

Schacht Agents are prepared to promptly demonstrate our Model D Merchants' Delivery Schacht Cars to business houses. Catalog gives full detailed descriptions and prices.

Save expense of horse delivery. Consider the figure on the side of economy and durability which we will send you.

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Model "D" Merchants' Delivery

and the floating shafts being set from the differential without putting any strain on the shafts. The differential is then removed, the bevel driving pinions withdrawn, and the differential lifted out.

Unless a car is more than one year old it is not necessary to assume that the differential needs overhauling. By jacking up one rear wheel and rocking it back and forth, the total extent of play in the differential may be estimated. It is also usually possible to reach the pinions through openings in the differential shell, and by shaking them to determine whether they are loose. If so, they should be reworked and the pin or spider replaced if worn. Frequently means are provided for advancing slightly the driving pinion or gear or both to compensate for wear. If this adjustment is disturbed the gears should be moved in a straight line and not curved around, else the teeth will engage only at their ends or the large ends instead of over their full length. By rubbing red lead on the teeth and turning the gear, one can tell where the teeth touch.

If cup and cone ball bearings are used whether in the rear axle or in the transmission, they were possible should be renewed immediately. Fig. 7 shows the effect of wear on a stationary ball cone, e. g. on an axle spindle. The pressure comes against the stationary bottom portion and while the cup wears a true path the cone is destroyed. It is possible though not always worth while to prolong the life of the cone by giving it a quarter or half turn on the shaft or axle. If the cup is stationary and the cone rotates evidently the cup will be the first to wear out of round. When the ball of a set is renewed the entire set should be replaced with it.

We come now to the engine, the last and in some ways the most important part to overhaul. The owner is strongly advised not to attempt to refit the main crank shaft bearings unless he has had considerable previous experience and knows exactly what to do. On the other hand it is not at all hard to repair and readjust valves, replace worn valve lifters and their guides and to do the ordinary tinkering and adjusting with the timer, carburetor etc. It is best not to tamper with the magneto further than to clean the interrupter and adjust the interrupter contact points if worn.

To overhaul the engine first strip it of all small gear. Take off the magneto first marking the coupling so that it can be replaced exactly as it was, and tag the wires. Remove and tag the oil pipes, blow through them to see that they are clear and plug them to exclude dirt. Disconnect the carburetor, remove the timer, take out the spark plugs and plug the holes with waste, remove the dust pan, take out and mark the valves, take off the water pipes, the pump, and the fan. Now take off the cylinders. If no further dismantling is contemplated the pistons may be secured in situ, taking care that none of the carbon falls into the crank case and the piston rings are likewise cleaned without removal if possible. If the rings are leaky as proved by failure to hold compression when the valves are tight new rings are put in and fitted to the housing pins which prevent them from turning. At the same time the carbon can be scraped from the inside of the cylinder heads.

Take down the oil pan. Test the fit of the wrist pin and crank pin bearings by rocking the pistons and connecting rods on the pins. Do not confuse a rocking motion due to loose fit with play on the pins. A certain amount of end play is always provided. A crank pin bushing is likely to wear central (see shaded area) if the rod is offset as in Fig. 4, and if the rod is sprung the bushing may wear bell mouthed at both ends. The crank pin itself will in time wear at the point of greatest pressure, as indicated in Fig. 5. It takes more skill than can be acquired off-hand to fix it up again, but it can be done with a file

Swim the and callipers. It is not necessary to file clear around the unworn portion of the pin, since a slight deviation from its original axis does no harm, neither is it absolutely essential that it should have the same diameter throughout. Its new axis, however, must be absolutely parallel to the shaft. It is best to throw away worn bushings and put in new, taking out or inserting as pin till a fit is obtained, and scraping no more than is necessary. A worn wrist pin bushing must be renewed, and usually the wrist pin must be ground true. If the crank pins are oiled through passages drilled in the crank shaft, their lubrication is probably perfect. If, however, they are oiled solely by splash and the oil holes are in the upper half of the crank pin bushing, a considerable improvement can be made by replacing the upper bushings with solid ones and introducing the oil through the bottom half by bracing a copper tube in the cap to act as an oil scoop (Fig 10). The bottom half is then drilled and provided with an oil groove for about half its length. It is a principle of lubrication that the oil should always be introduced at the unloaded side of the joint, and that any breaks in the continuity of the loaded surface merely afford the oil an avenue of escape under pressure.

To renew the rivets, first take off the old leather and use it as a pattern. Select the new leather carefully for uniform and correct thickness, and cut it about half an inch short. The curves should be approximately that of the old piece (Fig 11). Locate the end and the middle holes for the rivets, counter-sinking them considerably so the rivet heads will not come flush, and soak the strip in water till it has swelled sufficiently to go in place. The rivets of a steel tire are an asset, and put in the end and middle rivets first, holding the strip meanwhile by wire nails. The riveting must be completed before the strip dries.

#### AUTOMOBILE FIRE-EXINGERS.

(Continued from page 68.) The engine proper. After reaching the scene of the fire the driving gear is uncoupled and the pumps are put in connection with the engine. The water engines of course must draw their water from a hydrant, well, or other supply. They have done splendid work in such a case wherever fire engines of available power or an adequate high-pressure system can be held in reserve. The best of these machines can run to a fire with a crew of seven men at speeds up to 60 miles per hour and carry 1,000 feet of hose. The pumps deliver 700 gallons of water per minute at pressures up to 160 pounds to the square inch. The recirculating steam fire engine has a capacity varying from 400 gallons per minute to 1,000 gallons in the case of the largest size of machines. Such a motor fire engine usually contains two 5-gallon chemical extinguishers, and heavy suction hose for hydrant connection, the steam, hose, holders, large alarm bell, the usual equipment of ladders, tools, and small scaling ladders. In the opinion of many fire engineers a motor fire station should have two such motor engines, with possibly a steam engine in reserve. Again, steam engines may also be held at reserve stations, instead of a large number of single steamers. This means considerable economy in the purchase, equipment, and maintenance of a fire house, with the increase in fire protection and the speed of the motors on an efficient service to be rendered.

Finally, we may consider machines in which no essential change is made in their construction except to use the gasoline motor and means of propulsion in place of the usual horse. Typical of these are the large combination water wagons and chemical engines which carry 1,000 feet of 2½-inch fire hose and answer every purpose of the horse-drawn wagon which they are destined to supplant. Fuel for 100 miles can be stored in the gasoline tanks and speeds



## Why You Should Buy It

Buying an automobile a serious business. Those who have denied themselves the pleasure of motoring. They doubted the wisdom of buying an expensive car and would not take the risk of a cheap one. Perhaps you're one of them.

The new Haynes solves your problem. It was built to suit your needs. Our problem was to make just as good a car as could be built by the best workmen, from only the best materials. We wanted to give you a car that you could be proud of, one which would sustain our reputation as the pioneer builders of high-grade cars. Price was a secondary consideration, quality was our first thought. Model 19 is the result.

No better car can be built at any price, none good enough for anyone. Two Thousand Dollars is the right price for the right car, and the new Haynes is right.

The new Haynes embodies everything in an automobile that is worth having. It is a unusually attractive in appearance, it is workmanlike and general quality are unexcelled by the highest priced foreign or domestic cars. It's just the car to meet your requirements and keep your interest. It has no hidden weaknesses, no parts of unknown value. Every detail of its construction represents years of experiment and study, every

doubtful element has been discarded.

There's no economy in sacrificing enjoyment and comfort to save a few hundred dollars in the purchase price. A cheap car may look good, and do its work well for a time, but it can't last.

It costs money to build a car that will stand the test year in and year out. There's bound to be sleeping somewhere in a cheap car, and that means trouble for your pocket or later, and disappointment.

An automobile is one thing you would not like to apologize for. You can't afford an automobile unless you can buy a good one. No man can.

Perhaps you are willing to pay more for the car that suits you, than a new

Haynes costs. But what's the use? A better car can't be built at any price. Don't forget that. No matter how you're willing to pay, find out all about this Car. Make your own comparison.

Take a ride in one. Notice the finish, the upholstery. Above all study the engine and ease of operation. There's pleasure in every mile. No matter how inexperienced, you'll appreciate the difference between this car of established reputation and other makes.

But what's more, we will send you literature describing the details of this superior car, and tell you where you can have a demonstration.

#### MODEL 19

FULLY EQUIPPED

Includes Complete Supply of Tools, Full Line, Motor, Tires, Glass, Paint, Lubricants, etc. (Absolutely Nothing But the Best.)

#### Haynes Automobile Co.

124 Main Street, Kokomo, Ind.

Please forward literature concerning your Model 19 and advise where I can have a demonstration.

Name

Address

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#### Gas or Gasoline Engines & H.P.

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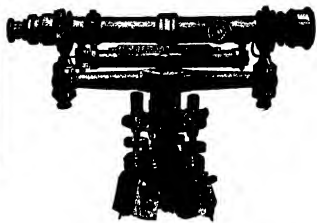
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## GURLEY INSTRUMENTS



Good curves—  
Uniform  
Road bed—  
Level stretches  
Easy grades  
You should know

BORO, COUNTY, CITY, TOWN

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Engineers and Surveyors

W. & L. E. GURLEY, TROY, N. Y.

up to 40 and 45 miles an hour with full load are easily achieved. To carry the heavy hose for the high pressure service of New York City a special automobile wagon has been found most useful and in over a year of service has met every test. Put into use in January, 1919, it was successfully operated on snowy and slippery streets and never failed in responding to an alarm. This vehicle is built to run up to 30 miles an hour on city streets climb any reasonable grades, and to carry the full strength of a high-pressure company. It carries forty 50-foot lengths of 1 1/2 inch heavy rubber high pressure fire hose and has a turret mounted upon the drivers seat from which a powerful steam-driven stream can be delivered. It takes the place of a three-horse wagon previously employed. In fact this automobile truck of New York City has been the logical outcome of the high-pressure service in the lower part of Manhattan. The future will probably see it extensively used in New York and in other cities provided with high-pressure service.

Now is the use of the automobile confined to the emergency wagon, chemical engine, combination and hose wagon? Aerial ladder trucks up to 35 feet in height are now made for motor trucks and have all the essential features of this important piece of apparatus previously requiring three horses. A useful aerial motor truck is mounted upon a 30 horse motor four-cylinder automobile, the automobile taking the place of the forward wheels thus making a self-wheeled vehicle lighter than the ordinary ladder truck with its horses, but steered by a tiller wheel in the rear in the same manner. The whole machine can be turned to its length around corners and is often more easily controlled and regulated than with horses, being capable of running 25 miles per hour with full equipment and crew on a five per cent grade. This apparatus

is of interest in comparison with the somewhat shorter ladder devices known as "seagulls" which are in use in Europe and which have been developed there to considerable efficiency.

That the motor-propelled apparatus is bound to come eventually and to supplant horse-drawn machines seems to be the opinion of progressive fire fighters. Chief Croker spoke in this vein to the writer and said that it was only a matter of expense in the original outlay that prevented motor fire engines from being extensively adopted in the suburbs of the greater city. In fact during the last weeks of the past year the Fire Commission advertised for bids for furnishing two automobile combination gasoline engines and hose wagons for the borough of Brooklyn and one for the borough of Queens. At present the high efficiency motor fire engines cost more than steam fire engines of greater power, and as fire fighting power is desired first of all, in nearly every large city department, the chief prefer heavy units to increased mobility and speed. On the other hand the makers of motor fire apparatus claim that the economies of maintenance more than justify the increased expense.

There are several questions that enter into the operation of commercial motor vehicles that naturally arise in connection with fire apparatus. One is, the matter of fire. But it must be recalled that the actual mileage of fire apparatus is inconsiderable and that furthermore the best fire vehicles are now supplied with rubber tires, so that there would be no more wear in one race than in the other. Fire engines, owing to their portability and the speed with which they must be brought to full working capacity, are notoriously inefficient machines from a mechanical standpoint, and the gasoline engine in no way works for worse conditions. If reasonable economy of operation is secured as well as an reliability of service, then with the extra

ordinary decrease in the cost of maintenance the gasoline motor-driven machine is bound to have a successful future.

### ANTI JOY RIDER DEVICES. (Continued from page 54.)

Other parts of the car by means of attachments fastened inside the hood. For example by means of two thumb screws through the dash, which are inaccessibly until the hood is raised, the footboards can be secured against removal, and this will make it impossible to open the cover of the gear box. Furthermore, there is combined with the lock a vibration indicator to record movements of the vehicle.

Every precaution to render the device proof against tampering seems to have been taken by the inventor, who asserts that it is impossible to start the engine, open the hood, or operate the car without the owner's knowledge or consent unless he has forgotten to withdraw the key or has given a duplicate key into the possession of the chauffeur. In the latter event the chauffeur cannot take the car out on the road without having the approximate distance traveled registered by the vibration recorder.

The only visible part of the device is a polished brass plate 1 by 4 inches in size which is set into the dash. In the upper part of this is set a casting containing a compact switch for use with any system of ignition and, also a Yale lock provided on its inner and with a cam plate to connect place. The lock key takes the place of the usual switch lever, and the switch cannot be operated without it. It is also impossible to remove the key until the switch has been turned to "off" position.

Two ball-crank levers surrounding the barrel of the Yale lock behind the switch are operated by the cam plate of the lock, and their long arms are attached to small steel cables that pass through dyals screwed into the dash under the

hood. These cables lead to two special spring latches secured to the lower inner corners of the dash in a position to engage the slots cut in strips of angle iron riveted to the inside of the hood on either side. Thus, when the key and cam are in open position, as shown in the drawing, the latches are withdrawn and the hood can be raised, but when the switch has been turned to "off" and the key removed, the latches are released and hold the hood against all attempts to raise it. The engine may be run with the hood open, and the hood will lock automatically when closed.

In a special recess directly beneath the Yale lock is placed a vibration recorder, resembling a pedometer in appearance and action, which is held securely by a plate provided with a spring to press against the back of the instrument. The vibration recorder is so adjusted that it will not be affected by the running of the engine while the car is at rest, but will record the vibrations of the car when in motion. The plate is sealed by a wire and lead seal and also by a strip of paper pasted across the back with the owner's name written thereon, and if these seals are broken explanations from the chauffeur are in order, as he is the only person except the owner who has access to the hood chamber. The switch can be removed without disturbing the sealed chamber holding the recorder, but only after the hood has been raised. It is impossible to remove any part of the mechanism from the exposed side of the dash.

### MAKING YOUR OWN REPAIRS.

(Continued from page 61.)  
graphic, and in order to apply it, the springs must be relieved of the weight of the car. To do this, apply jacks to the corners of the frame, and outside the rails; then rise the car of the ground. The weight of the main and wheels will

(Continued on page 71.)







# A Wonderful Business Story

We have told in a book—which we ask you to send for—one of the greatest business stories ever told. A story of how John N. Willys stepped in two years to the topmost place in motordom. Of how Overland automobiles rose in 24 months to this year's sale of \$24,000,000. How a factory has grown like magic to a payroll of 4,000 men—to a daily output of 30 carloads of automobiles. And how a large part of the demand of the country has been centered around one remarkable car.

## The Discovery

Here is an outline of the story—just enough to make you want it all

Two years ago, Mr. John N. Willys was a dealer in automobiles. There came to him one day a remarkable car—evidently the creation of a mechanical genius. The simplest, sturdiest, smoothest-running car that anyone around there had seen

The name of the car was the Overland. And the price—then \$1,250—was as amazing as the car itself

The sale of this car spread like wildfire. Each car sold brought a call for twenty others like it. Old and new motor car owners came by the score to deposit advance money—attracted by the Overland's matchless simplicity

But the cars did not come. And when Mr. Willys went to the makers he found them on the verge of receivership.

The genius which had created this marvelous car could not finance the making, in the face of the 1907 panic.

## The New Start

Mr. Willys in some way met the overdue pay roll—took over the plant—and contrived to fill his customers' orders.

Then the cry came for more cars from every place where an Overland had been sold. As the new cars went out the demand became overwhelming. The factory capacity was overthrown in short order. Then tents were erected.

Another factory was acquired, then another, but the demand soon outgrew all three.

During the next fiscal year these factories sent out 4,075 Overland cars. Yet the demand was not half supplied.

Dealers fairly fought for preference. Buyers paid premiums. None could be content with a lesser car when he once saw the Overland.

All this without advertising. About the only advertising the car ever had was what users told others

## The Pope-Toledo Plant

Mr. Willys' next step was to buy the Pope-Toledo factory—one of the greatest automobile plants in the country. This gave him four well-equipped factories—just 16 months from his start.

But the Toledo plant wasn't sufficient. So he gave his builders just 40 days to complete an addition larger than the original factory

Then he equipped these buildings with the most modern machinery—with every conceivable help and convenience—so that cars could be built here for less than anywhere else

Now 4,000 men work on Overland cars. The output is valued at \$140,000 per day. The contracts from dealers for this season's delivery call for 20,000 cars

Now this man has acquired 23 acres around his Toledo plant. And his purpose is to see—from this time on—that those who want Overlands get them

## Marvelous Sales

Dealers had ordered 16,000 of the 1910 Overland models before the first car was delivered. That means that each Overland sold the previous year had sold four others like it. And without any advertising.

This year's Overland sale will exceed \$24,000,000. Yet the Overland is but two years old.

## The \$1,000 Overland

This year an Overland—better than last year's \$1,250 car—is being sold for \$1,000. That is because the tremendous production has cut the cost 20 per cent.

A 25 horse-power car, capable of 50 miles an hour, for \$1,000, complete with lamps and magneto. Never did a maker give nearly so much for the money.

There are higher-powered Overlands for \$1,250—\$1,400—\$1,500. They are just as cheap in comparison as the \$1,000 model

The Overlands are unique in simplicity. They operate by pedal control. A ten-year-old child can master the car in a moment

They are made in the same factory, and by the same men as made the Pope-Toledo—a \$4,250 car. The reason for the price lies in the production of 125 cars per day

## Get the Whole Story

Send me this coupon to get the whole story, told in a fascinating book. Learn about the car which in two years captured so large a share of the whole trade of the country. See what has done this—what there is in the Overland to make it the most desired car in existence. Please cut out this coupon now.

F. A. Barker, Sales Manager,  
The Willys-Overland Company  
Toledo, Ohio

Please send me the book

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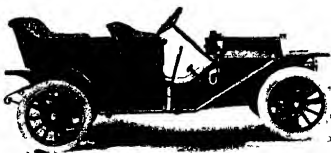


Overland Model 30—Price \$1,000. 25 h. p.—102-inch wheel base. Made also with single rumble seat, double rumble seat and Top Tourer as slightly additional cost.

The  
*Cyclists*  
Two of the many  
Overland Models

All prices include  
Magneto and full  
lamp equipment

Members of Association  
Licensed Automobile Manufacturers, Licensed Under  
Patent.



Overland Model 41—Price \$1,400. 40 h. p.—112-inch wheel base—8 passengers. Five lamps and Magneto included





















# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

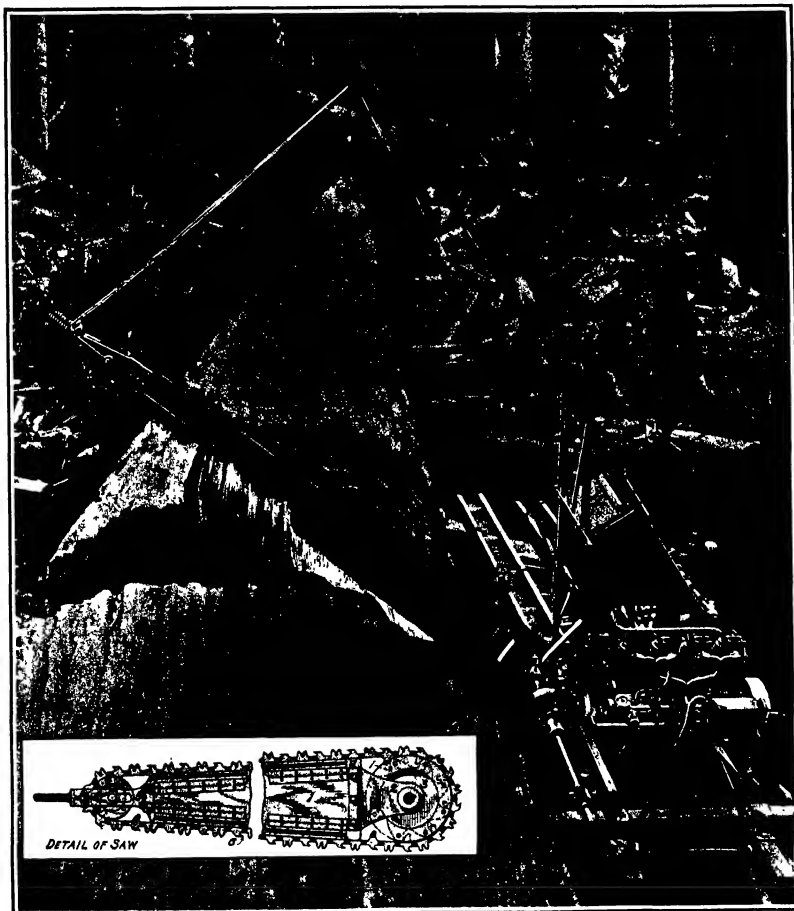
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A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS

Vol. CII, No. 4,  
ESTABLISHED 1860.

NEW YORK, JANUARY 22, 1910

10 CENTS A COPY  
\$5.00 A YEAR



The saw is a chain with tooth-links passing over grooved guide wheels at the ends of a frame.

CUTTING A REDWOOD TREE WITH A SAW DRIVEN BY AN ENGINE.—[See page 86.]



## ELECTRICITY.

The South Georgia Light House "Tyne Frederick" has just an accident to its steering gear.

Mr. W. C. & R. R. R. announced early in 1910 that electric motor power will be used as far north as North Wales Point. The delay at Whitehead now made necessary by the change from electricity to steam will be done away with.

The State Commission of Highways of New York has asked for an appropriation of \$40,000 to be used by the Commission in developing experiments in economical forms of road construction which would be suitable to various weights and classes of traffic.

The Public Service Commission of the State of New York for the First District, has upon open bids for \$775 miles of rapid transit lines. The same work can be begun on these subways the sooner will the traffic congestion be done away with.

A German machine manufacturer has invented a new means of power transmission by the use of steel wire. It is claimed that the system is equal in every way to leather belts, steel bands, chains, etc., and is much cheaper. The wire is thin, and is endless.

The Wildlife Service, the Province of the Dominion of Canada, has launched a bill which calls for the expenditure of \$16,000,000 for a Canadian year of 11 ships. The present indications are that it will carry 60,000 tons of cargo and 60,000 tons of cargo.

A special Board of Fire Control has been named by the Secretary of the Navy, to look into the question of the value of the military mail which has been incriminated in the building, and report whether other vessels of the same type should be placed on other vessels of the fleet.

Since introducing the "Pay Within" cars in Philadelphia the number of accidents to persons has decreased 74 per cent. This is attributed to the arrangement of the closed doors and steps, making it impossible for passengers to get on or off when the cars are moving.

We regret to note the death of Dr. Charles B. Dudley, consulting chemist of the Pennsylvania Railroad and president of the American Society for Testing Materials and of the International Society for Testing Materials. His contribution to the railway world was a most important one.

The total length of the new Manhattan bridge connecting the boroughs of Manhattan and Brooklyn is 6,815 feet. The total cost of the bridge is \$11,853,000. The weight of the cables is 6,800 tons. There is provision for four trolley and four elevated tracks, one 35-foot roadway, and two 11-foot promenades.

During the remainder of the winter season vessels of the General Line will sail direct to Flagstaff, outfitting the port of call at Quantico. Since inaugurating this new port of call more than 5,000 passengers have made use of the facilities which have been provided, and have expressed themselves as being well pleased with the saving of time which is effected by cutting out the trip to Liverpool.

Mails are being asked for the needs and frames of the Siney gas valves to be embedded in the masonry of the twin locks at Pedro Miguel, and the upper twin locks and the spillway at Gatun, on the Panama Canal. Each valve is designed to operate in a full traveling on two roller train bearings with a span of ten feet from center to center, balanced in the downstroke of the wall casting. Each valve closes an opening 8 feet wide by 18 feet high.

The delay of passenger trains is often caused by a too slow method of admitting the passengers to the trains when the train is often crowded. Where tickets have to be examined, and passengers admitted one by one, there is always more or less delay. This can be avoided by a second series of gates. The examination of tickets is made at the first gate, which is then opened in ample time prior to the departure of the train. The passengers are then held behind the second gate until the train arrives, or is ready to depart, when a number of gates are thrown open and the passengers go at once proceed to take their trains.

Mr. W. C. & R. B. Co. has asked the up-State Public Service Commission to reopen the investigation which was held at Whitehead in 1910, and to report on the same.

The Commission has also asked the up-State Public Service Commission to reopen the investigation which was held at Whitehead in 1910, and to report on the same. The Commission has also asked the up-State Public Service Commission to reopen the investigation which was held at Whitehead in 1910, and to report on the same.

## ELECTRICITY.

The question of using low-tension metal filament lamps is receiving considerable attention abroad. These lamps are being made for this particular purpose, which are fitted with interrupters, so that they may be used on direct current lines. It has been suggested to fit each lamp with a transformer. The filament of the lamp could be in a closed circuit, forming the secondary of the transformer.

A simple method of clarifying the air of a room has recently been suggested. It consists of an electric fan or ventilator, which is operated in a cylinder, and from a reservoir above the fan a jet of air is allowed to drop on the fan blades. This is thrown out against the cylinder in a spray, through which the air drawn by the ventilator must pass. This serves to collect the dust from the air. The inventor of this system proposed the use of glycerine or soap, but it has been found that practically as good results can be obtained by the use of water.

A novel method of catching fish was described in a recent issue of the Electrical Review and Western Electrician. A trolley line running between Franklin and Columbus, Ind., skirts the White River for a considerable distance, and it has been discovered that the trolley wire is frequently tapped to furnish current for fishing by electricity. An end of the wire is placed in the water, and the current causes such fish as come within its influence, so that they can be taken out with scoop nets. The trolley company and the Indiana Fish and Game Warden are trying to break up this method of fishing.

The following estimates of the value of various electrical inventions in the world during 1909 has been published in the Electrical World.

Electrical apparatus	\$375,000,000
Electric railways	470,000,000
Central stations	250,000,000
Telephony	250,000,000
Telegraphy	60,000,000
Isolated plant supply	70,000,000
Miscellaneous	50,000,000
<b>Total</b>	<b>\$1,435,000,000</b>

The value of aluminum for the field coils of railway motors has been noted in Germany. It is found that the aluminum takes up less weight than the copper, although a larger mass of metal is required, because no covering is required. The oxide film on the aluminum surface is sufficient to insulate it, and there is no danger of destroying or weakening this insulator by charring as in the case of the cotton covering when the motor is overheated so that there is less danger of short circuits. The principal advantage, however, is the reduced weight, as the aluminum coil weighs but half as much as the copper coils.

A writer in La Revue Electrique describes the experiments of Mikoula Kerbaum to determine the effect of electric light on liquids. He subjected alcohol to half an ounce of water to the rays of a quartz mercury vapor lamp, and after about ten hours gas appeared to be forming. At the end of two hundred hours 200 cubic millimeters (0.04 cubic inch) of gas was produced. The gas proved to be hydrogen, and the water showed that it was charged with oxygen. This experiment explains the presence of oxygenated water in snow and rain. It is proposed to use this method for sterilizing liquids, as oxygenated water is an excellent germicide.

Now, that aerial navigation is coming to be considered seriously new problems are arising, such as the question of navigation on stormy nights or over fog-bound land, when the aeronaut will be unable to find his bearings. It has been proposed by a German inventor that a network of wireless stations be established over the land, each equipped with a predetermined signal at regular intervals, which would be received by the air craft, and enable the aeronaut to determine his course. The airplanes would not be required to carry transmitting apparatus, as a small receiving apparatus would suffice to enable them to avail themselves of this proposed system, and the weight of the receiving device could easily be reduced to a few pounds.

A new method of determining the sag of overhead wires has been suggested by a writer in the Elektrotechnische Zeitschrift. The pendulum principle is employed. The sag of a wire is not in direct proportion to the number of oscillations per minute is noted (the complete motion back and forth being considered, according to European practice, as made up of two oscillations). Letting  $N$  stand for the number of oscillations, the sag in centimeters is determined by dividing  $447,000$  by  $N^2$ . To find the sag in inches, divide  $17,910$  by  $N^2$ . Of course, this formula would apply to any distance between poles and any weight on the wire, because the sag is proportional to the period of the oscillation is determined only by the vertical distance between the center of gravity and the ends of the wire.

## SCIENCE.

Prof. H. M. Barnard of Yerkes Observatory has succeeded in obtaining a photograph of Halley's comet which shows a faint steady straight tail. No ray is known, and the first photograph to show the tail of the present returning comet.

A new estimate of the earth's age has recently been given by Prof. William Morris Davis of Harvard. For the usually accepted one hundred million years he estimates sixty million years, on the basis of the cliffs in Arizona and Utah where the time taken to deposit the strata can be easily computed.

One objection to glass roofs is that if they are not very steeply inclined, the water of condensation collects on their under surface, and instead of running down the sloping ribs of the glass in places, and being led off, drips upon persons or objects below, which is inconvenient and may be very expensive. Even where the panes or strips are short, the path to the trough is too long. The increase in length and width of the panes now used makes this difficulty of more and more importance each year. One way of getting around it is, however, similar to that employed in forests and parks to prevent washing away of the hillside plates, namely, making inclined grooves toward the sides, only in this case the grooves are of horned shape, and form a series of parallel corrugations which run in the same direction as the slope of the plate, they then follow these without much difficulty down the slant to the trough below. This system may be employed either with glass sheets in which the ribs are embedded, or with plate glass.

We notice in a recent number of the Medical Record a letter from Dr. Robert I. Watkins, New York City, in which he claims the credit of having applied the moving picture to the microscope. He states that as far back as 1897 he demonstrated the motion picture to a private audience, among whom was the Editor of the Scientific American. The machine, known as the "micro-microscope," was described in our issue of July 17, 1897. Later, microscopic moving pictures were exhibited at the Grand Central Palace during the "Trained Nurses" and "Pure Food" Exhibition, the pictures thrown on the screen exhibiting the circulation of the blood in the web of a frog's foot, tritons in stagnant water, an amoeba locomoting, typhoid fever germs, and many others. Since that time Dr. Watkins has greatly improved his microscope and gave a demonstration on June 17th last at Chicago before an audience of five hundred physicians of the National Electric Association. We may venture to point out that Dr. O'Malley cannot see the ordinary microscope, but the ultra microscope.

The third paper dealing with the results of the Smithsonian African expedition under Col. Theodore Roosevelt has just been issued by the Smithsonian Institution. It describes a new species of *Oryzopsis* to which the specific name of *oryzopsis* is given. This new animal is a small carnivorous mammal closely resembling a fox. It is generally buff in color, and is found by Mr. Gerrit Miller of the museum staff to differ slightly from *Oryzopsis* *oryzopsis*, which occurs further south, especially in color and in the characteristics of its teeth and skull. The *Oryzopsis* is peculiar to Africa, and is not represented in the United States, but resembles in color the swift or kit fox of the western plains. The skull of this new form closely resembles that of the gray fox of our native fauna. This announcement is of special interest for the Smithsonian African expedition, which was expected from the region in Africa as the territory up to this time explored by the Smithsonian African expedition has been pretty thoroughly examined by British naturalists.

The water bottle for getting water for analysis from selected depths in the sea is a very simple device. The German sailor, or other metal which resists the corrosion of sea water, generally about two inches in diameter and twelve or fourteen inches long, with upward-opening valves at top and bottom, connected together on a central stem. Lugs are cast on the side of the cylinder for conveniently securing it at any point along the length of the line by which it is to be lowered into the water. During the lowering of the line the valves of the bottle are kept unopened by the passage of the water through the cylinder during its descent, but, when the desired depth has been reached, the valves are closed and are locked by the descent of a small propeller in the framework above the upper valve, which rides idly on a screw during the lowering of the bottle. The descent of the screw is arrested by the valves upon their seats, and the line commences to be hauled up. A specimen of the water at the depth to which the water bottle has descended is then brought to the surface, and a series of specimens from different depths may be obtained at one haul by securing a series of water bottles at the required intervals along the sounding line.

# THE SCHERL GYROSCOPIC MONORAIL CAR

## THE PRINCIPLE OF ITS OPERATION

Within the past few months Mr Brennan has exhibited at London a car which runs upon a single rail and is prevented from falling over to either side by the rotation of two gyroscopes carried on the car. At about the same time Mr Scherl a German capitalist exhibited in Berlin a similar car. It is cars were of sufficient size to accommodate passengers both car

tions per minute. We are all familiar with the gyroscope of the toy shop or the lecture room—the first mounted rotatably in one the second in two concentric rings with the axis of the rings at right angles to each other and the flywheel axis in each case capable of universal angular motion. In the accompanying engraving we show a gyroscope mounted as in the Scherl car. The flywheel is carried on a vertical axis which is mounted in a gimbal ring. This ring swings on a horizontal axis in bearings carried on two vertical posts mounted on a board which, for the present purpose we will consider to represent the deck of the car. If we change the plane of rotation of the flywheel by pressing down on one side and tilting it over toward *B* two things will happen. The board will resist the downward pressure on that side and tend to rise and the flywheel will be suddenly tilted over as shown in the direction *D* in a plane at right angles to the plane in which we have depressed the board.

This tilting of the axis is known as its precession. If now we endeavor to increase the precession by pressing down upon the already tilted axis the latter will resist very strongly and there will be developed at the same time a large additional resistance to our depression of the side *B* of the board. It is in this advancement of the precession as Brennan calls it, though the precession because of the vigorous resistance of the flywheel axis is not actually advanced that the secret of the successful gyroscopic car lies as will be evident from the following description of the construction and operation of the Scherl car.

Referring to the engraving showing a longitudinal section it will be seen that the car which is a few feet wide by 16 feet long is carried on two wheels

completely isolates both motor and flywheels and the gyroscopes run in a perfect vacuum—this to avoid the skin friction of the air which would retard the speed. The casings are mounted on transverse axes, journaled in the frame of the car and they are therefore free to rock in a fore-and-aft direction. The linkage between the motor and the casing is so small that the heat of the motor can jump the insulating gap and radiate away freely and "hauling up is thereby avoided. The speed of rotation of the 116-pound flywheels as we have stated above, is 2,000 per minute.



The gyroscopic car inclines automatically to the inside of a curve.

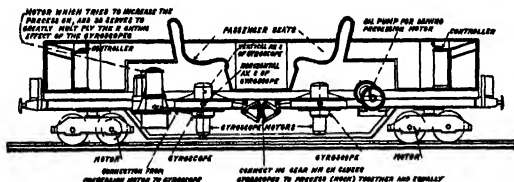
ried their loads successfully and in each case the gyroscopes maintained the car in a state of equilibrium—and they did this even when all its load was placed on one side of the car or when the car was running around a curve.

Apparently the inventors worked quite independently of each other and it is a remarkable fact that in the essential elements for the control of the gyroscopic mechanism they should have produced machines so broadly identical. The German car which is now being exhibited in this city represents the joint labors of Mr. La. Froelich the inventor who worked out



With three men on one side, car tilts to opposite side, restoring equilibrium.

The rocking of the gyroscopes is in opposite directions—if the car is tilted to one side they rock toward each other and vice versa, and to insure simultaneous and equal movement they are connected together by bell crank levers and two toothed quadrants as shown in the drawing. In front of the gyroscopes is an electrically driven oil pump for generating hydraulic pressure to drive a precession motor which is carried at the rear of the gyroscopes. The precession motor consists of a cylinder and piston controlled by adjustable valves. These valves are themselves operated by the rocking movements of the gyroscopes and the move-



Longitudinal section through Scherl gyroscopic car.

the theory and data for the design. Mr. Emil Paalke who designed and constructed the car and Mr. Scherl the owner of the patents.

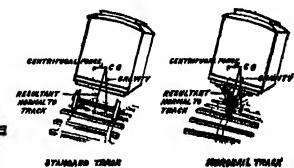
**The Gyroscopes.**—The simple gyroscope consists of a flywheel so mounted upon a system of bearings that its axis may be tilted in any direction. The peculiar and most interesting behavior of the gyroscopes is due to the fact that when a flywheel is mounted in rotation in a given plane it resists any effort to change its plane of rotation by tilting the axis on which it is turning. The tendency of the flywheel to maintain its plane of rotation and its resistance to any force tend to tilt it out of that plane is proportional to its momentum and since momentum is in direct as the weight and as the square of the velocity it is customary to use as small a weight and as high a velocity as possible. Hence the flywheels used in the Scherl car weigh only 116 pounds each but they rotate at the enormous speed of 2,000 revs

per minute. The gyroscopes are placed centrally below the longitudinal axis of the car. It is driven by two 5 horse power motors one on each truck. At each end is a controller and a box containing various operating switches. In the center are two seats accommodating four passengers.

Mounted in the car frame underneath the seats are two gyroscopes one of which rotates clockwise the other anti-clockwise. The flywheels rotate normally in a horizontal plane on vertical axes. On the lower end of each axis is mounted an electrically driven motor. The axes are journaled in strong steel upright casings which

ments of the piston are caused through suitable mechanical connections to exert a tilting pull or push, as the case may be against the gyroscopes.

The functioning of this most ingenious mechanism is as follows. When the car tips or tends to tip to one side there is an immediate resistance (tending to right the car) accompanied by a precession (tilting) of the gyroscopes. This natural precession actuates the valves of the precession motor which in turn tilts or attempts to tilt the gyroscopes still further on its transverse axis and so increases the precession. The gyroscopes however strongly resist and there is a resulting reaction



Old and new method of rounding curves.



If the table (representing platform of car) be tilted transversely the gyroscopic flywheel will tilt fore or aft according to the direction of its rotation, and there will be developed a strong resistance to the movement of the table. (The fore-and-aft movement is called the precession.)

View showing gyroscopic mechanism.

THE SCHERL GYROSCOPIC MONORAIL CAR.

of all the forces passing through the single rail on which the car runs.

One of our illustrations shows the pilot car with three people standing on the side sills, and it will be noticed that instead of the car inclining toward the loaded side, it actually inclines away from it. This, however, is in agreement with the facts observed in our consideration of the gyroscopes, where the pressure on one side was immediately resisted by a counterbalancing force, causing that side of the gyroscopes to rise in the unbalanced condition of the car the gyroscopes were holding it in a state of equilibrium with the center of gravity vertical above the rail. When the three people stepped upon the car the center of gravity moved over correspondingly until it was several inches outside of the rail causing the car to lean to that side. Immediately the gyroscopes began to pull the car over to the left until the center of gravity of the car and the three people was directly above the rail and equilibrium was restored. So sensitive and intelligent, if we may use the term is the relation ship between the gyroscopes and its precession motor that they begin to act immediately upon the disturbance of equilibrium, they start just the right amount of corrective force; and they become quiescent the moment equilibrium is restored.

Another of our photographic views shows the striking phenomenon of a car running around a curve upon a single rail and inclining inwardly to the proper degree to maintain its equilibrium. To practical railroad men this is certainly the most attractive feature of the invention for it would mean the elimination of all the different contradictory and expensive problems connected with the super-elevation of the outside rail on the present twinned tracks. It is a fact that the car is so intelligent (we cannot help using the term) that whether the curve be easy or sharp and whether the car rounds it at low or seventy-five miles an hour it will lean inwardly with mathematical exactness to the exact amount required by its speed and the sharpness of the curve.

In the standard system of track the component of centrifugal force tending to hurl the car over to the outside of the curve or cause it to jump the track is equalized by elevating the outside rail until the resultant of gravity and centrifugal force falls normally to the track. This condition can only hold true on any given curve for a certain speed. Below that speed a train will grip on the lower rail above it will crowd against the outer rail. Not so with the gyroscopic car. As soon as it enters a curve the pull of centrifugal force is resisted and the gyroscopes draw the car over to the inside of the rail until the resultant of all the forces acting upon it passes through the rail.

The gyroscopic car as above described is one of the most brilliant inventions of this or any age. But is it practical and will it pay? A discussion of this question will be found in our editorial columns.

#### THE DEATH OF LEON DELAGRANGE

After making a wonderful new record of 154 miles in 2 hours and 24 minutes on December 20th with a Blériot monoplane Leon Delagrange who with Henry Farman was the first aviator to make flight with the crude Voisin biplane in France in the spring of 1907 met his death by a fall with the same monoplane on January 4th while flying at Bordeaux. Our photograph shows Mr. Blériot with Delagrange standing at his left and Le Blanc another daring pilot of the Blériot machine at his right. Behind the three men stands the machine which is like that Blériot used in crossing the Channel and which Delagrange used on the day of the accident. A rather strong wind was blowing and according to cable reports when the machine headed into the wind the right wing suddenly broke and the monoplane fell to the ground.

This is the first accident which has occurred owing to the collapse of an aeroplane when in the air. We understand, however, that some time ago a similar accident happened to Latham, but without disastrous results. One wing of his Antoinette monoplane broke off and stood almost at right angles to the other wing yet by leaning to one side and varying the remaining wing, Latham was able to guide his machine down in circles and bring it safely to the ground. After repeating the trick he attached it in such a



Le Blanc Blériot Delagrange  
BLERIOT AND HIS TWO PILOTS IN FRONT OF HIS NO 11 TYPE MONOPLANE

way that when he was up in the air he could pull a cord and cause the wing to break off as before. He did this and came down a second time with the wing broken simply to demonstrate that a broken wing did not necessarily mean disaster. In the Antoinette machine the wings are secured separately to a mast so that the breaking of one does not affect the other. In the Blériot monoplane the wings are connected together over a tripod the result being that if one breaks the other collapses and the machine is sure to be dashed to the ground.

The death of Delagrange will put a damper upon the ardor of some enthusiasts for a time but it was due to one of those unfortunate accidents which are always liable to occur in the development of a new art. His name will go down to history as one of the martyrs of aerial navigation. He is the fourth aviator to be killed within the past four months the others being Lefebvre (who plunged to earth in his Wright machine) Capt. Yerber (who struck the ground when making a turn in his Voisin) and the Spanish tallor Fernandez (whose small biplane resembling the Curtiss broke while he was making one of his first flights on December 4th last). All four fatal accidents occurred in France.

#### A NEW ANTILOPE TRIPLANE

One of our illustrations shows the new triplane of Mr. A. Y. Roe. Mr. Roe is one of the most persistent English experimenters. He has been working a long time and has finally developed a successful machine. His triplane is really a Langley type machine in triplane shape since it has three superposed surfaces forming a tail and attached like the forward planes to a triangular body. The motor is mounted in the body at the front end of the machine and drives a three

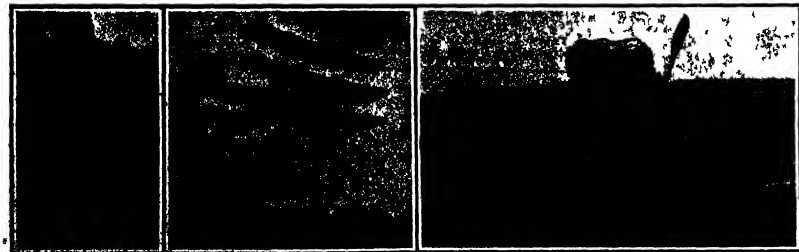
bladed propeller mounted upon its crankshaft. The aviator sits in the body about half way between the main planes and the tailplane plane, and the machine is mounted upon two wheels at the front and a skid at the rear. It is 22 feet long and the planes have a spread of 30 feet and 120 square feet of supporting surface. They are made of wood but five degrees. The forward planes are 30 feet by 8 feet 7 inches while the rear planes are 10 feet by 8 feet 7 inches in area. The total weight of the machine originally with a 10 horse-power Napier motor was but 200 pounds. A larger motor of 30 horse-power has been fitted. The weight has been considerably increased. The body is made of deal wood; it is covered with cotton oil paper backed with muslin. The machine is steered by working a rudder and in the inclination of the main planes which are pivoted so they can be turned. There is a vertical rudder at the rear. The machine is stored by working a rudder and at the same time twisting the rear edges of the main planes.

Mr. Roe has done most of his experimenting at Wembley Park and recently the grounds have been cleared there so as to give him more room. He has made a considerable number of short flights in a straight line and his machine is remarkable for its low power light weight and small speed.

#### AVIATORS COSTUMES AND MACHINES FOR TRAINING BEGINNERS.

Two of the photographs reproduced on this page give a very good idea of the costumes worn by French aviators and of the dress which is adopted in France by the lady operators or aviatrices. The costumes used by the men consist of overalls and jumper and a tight fitting skull cap completely covering the head. The costume being used by the lady operators consists of a loose blouse and long bloomers extending to the tops of the shoes. A skull cap similar to that used by the men is also worn. At the present time but two ladies have made flights or themselves in aeroplanes in France. These are the Baroness de la Roche who operates a Voisin biplane and who recently met with an accident by running into a tree and Miss Harvington who is the first woman in the world to have flown a monoplane. She has made several successful flights with a Blériot machine. A number of other ladies are learning however and several aviation clubs have been formed for women. One of the most recently organized of these was formed at Los Angeles (a).

Another interesting picture at the bottom of this page shows a novel training machine for acclimating aviators to a monoplane of the Santos Dumont type. This machine consists of a substantial triangular body mounted upon three wheels and terminating in a tall hinged movable vertical and horizontal surfaces by which the machine is steered to right and left when running along on the ground or by which the tail is made to rise a short distance in the air. The two bottom members of the triangular frame are extended forward and met above a small wheel five or six feet ahead of the main wheels so that if the machine tilts forward when the tail rises the front wheel keeps it from tilting too far. A four-cylinder water-cooled motor of 40 horse-power is mounted upon a U-shaped frame and carries a propeller in front on its crank shaft. The would be aviator sits in a small seat below the motor with the control levers conveniently at hand. The machine is fitted with large wire wheels fitted with large diameter pneumatic tires. With this machine a beginner can travel at very fast speed over the ground and accustom himself to the steering side ways and up and down of a monoplane. The machine should serve a useful purpose in training aviators who intend to fly this type of aeroplane.



Blériot's triplane in flight.

Blériot's triplane in flight.

Machine for familiarizing beginners with an aeroplane.

Blériot's triplane and a Voisin machine for training new aviators.

## A POWER-SAVING SAW.

The continuously running flexible saw is by no means a novelty to our readers. Its leading principle is embodied in the hand saw in common use. Although effective for sawing lumber, hand saws are incapable of cross-cutting on large trees in the forest, because the hand saw runs in two planes. For the purpose of overcoming this objection Mr. R. L. Muir has perfected a new style of endless cross-cut saw which is flexible in a single plane of motion and which is carried in a frame which with the side of the hand saw saws it connects through the top frame being sufficiently stiff and rigid to keep the saw in perfect line.

The frame in question is made of this steel with grooved edges. Protective rollers, one on each side to the ends. In the brackets guide wheels 3 and 4 with grooved peripheries are journaled. The bracket 5 has a handle by which the operator controls the saw. An endless chain composed of saw links 4 is mounted on the guide wheels and runs on the straight edges of the frame. The guide wheels on the frame serve to keep the chain straight during operation. This frame and the toothed chain constitute an end less saw which runs continuously and which makes a single saw cut in the plane of its motion. The saw moreover is adapted to all kinds and styles of sawing for which (other than the hand saw) the mechanical ally driven or traversing saw can be used and for which hand saws are ordinarily employed the two handled cross cut saw being a familiar example.

The chain saw is driven by a gasoline or electric motor the inner guide wheel being geared up with the motor shaft as indicated in our front page illustration. The motor is carried on a sled which is moved along on ways whenever a new cut is to be made.

Mr. Muir has carried on extensive trials with the saw in the vast redwood belts of Mendocino and Humboldt Counties in California, with remarkable success. The most important advantage of his construction is that of the speed. One of his large saws it is as set will cut through a tree having a diameter of some five to seven feet in less than ten minutes. By the old and slow hand saw the same work would consume an hour and a half with two men wielding the saw. One of the machine saws will accomplish as much as from 25 to 30 expert axmen a wonderful saving in time and expenses. The machine saws as only two or three men are needed to operate a machine. The saws can be run horizontally vertically or on an incline. Trees can be sawed within a few feet of the ground. The machine saws are unaffected by stump waste. In felling trees of immense size by the slow chopping methods hundreds of feet of valuable timber are lost by chippage because it often necessary to cut up the tree at eight feet above the level of the stump. The mechanical saw described avoids much of this waste.

## AN ELECTRIC PERFORATING PEE.

Through various efforts have been made from time to time to evolve an electrical system of securing an indestructible writing record which is complete proof against both forgery and fraud such devices have proved commercially impracticable. A French inventor however, Dr. Duhautail, has evolved a simple apparatus which is very efficient. It is called the antiferro pen which as its name implies is to render forgery impossible. The writing is done on a series of perforations burned in the paper. The apparatus comprises a small box with a sloping lid measuring about 20 inches long by some 6 inches wide. The whole of the electrical equipment is carried within the box or desk the lid of which is glass and carries at its upper end a sheet of aluminum. The pen itself is of the ordinary stylographic type.

The regulate current is drawn from a small 4 ampere storage battery as shown at A in one of the illustrations. The battery is connected up in the usual manner to an induction coil B to which is fitted a small high-speed trembler capable of adjustment by a thumb-screw on the outside of the desk. Between the second terminals of the coil a small cylindrical condenser C is placed in order to increase the intensity and fatness of the spark.

In an electric spark of writing cars must be taken to prevent the inside of such letters as o, d, r and so forth from dropping out which would result if the outline were continuous. This possibility is obtained by means of the trembler which makes the current rapidly intermittent. At the same time however such rapidly succeeding waves of electrical energy rising up to 10,000 volts instantly followed by a drop to zero, impose a severe strain upon the induction coil,

and will in time seriously affect it. To guard against such a result the inventor has introduced a novel device which may be best described as a safety valve to the coil. This is a highly exhausted vacuum tube D which is also placed between the secondary terminals and which is in parallel with the pen. This "steric bulb" or vacuum tube acts as a ballast laid upon the coil, and superintends which may be offered to the passage of the electric current through the pen is taken up thereby causing it to glow brilliantly. At the same time it also acts as a galvanometer as before the operator simply presses the pen point against the desk, and the resultant glow in the vacuum

*Diminished  
"Antiferro"  
Nov. 15 - 1908*

Specimen of writing with the electric pen.

(tube indicates that the apparatus is working efficiently.) The pen is about the same length as the ordinary fountain pen and its barrel contains a mercury bulb. The connection with the coil is effected by a short length of flexible wire carried on a spring barrel. By means of the mercury barrel contained in the barrel the primary circuit is never closed until the pen is held in the normal writing position. Even then the current cannot flow to the point of the pen because the cone-shaped extremity carrying the metallic writing point is separated from the barrel connection by means of the spring piston. It is only when the pen point is pressed upon the paper, wherein the metallic extremity is pushed inward against the mercury that the current can flow to the pen point.

To use the pen the sheet of paper is laid upon the staminal pad which on its under side is connected to the secondary terminal of the induction coil by means of a fat spring. When the point is pressed hard against the paper and the electrical circuit is completed the resultant spark burns its way directly through the paper leaving behind a distinct perforation. The size of the hole thus produced can be varied as desired from a large coarse perforation to a small almost invisible pin prick by the adjustment of a rheostat the knob of which projects from the left hand side of the desk.

With the metallic point only the perforated outline of the writing is produced but it may be desired to secure a legible distinct surface inscription as well. In this case the metallic point is replaced by a small



The "dash" pen, showing the coil and accessories.



The inventor writing the perforating pen.

## AN ELECTRIC PERFORATING PEE.

length of graphite—thus taken from an ordinary lead pencil acts excellently. Then in writing one secures a visible surface record and when held up to the light a perforated record may also be seen. In order to obtain the necessity of holding the paper to the light to see if the perforating is being efficiently effected, there is a small metallic filament lamp and reflector fitted inside the desk and by pushing a button on the left hand side the writer can see-upon the series by examining the writing in the light transmitted through the glass desk lid.

By this method of writing it is impossible to produce two signatures exactly alike, even if written by the

same person. This system is adapted to the use of a pen in its path through the paper which is a series of holes punched, and the perforations are so constructed as to prevent the paper from being torn. The paper is prepared paper containing perforations, and these the electric light avoids. The result is that the operator cannot even produce an exact duplicate of his own handwriting on each and in perfect duplication. This possibility is a distinct advantage upon it is required to sign a number of sheets of a document, a bond and its duplicate, a will and its copy, for instance. The electric pen is so constructed that it is simply superimposed and the top sheet vibrates upon the current will burn its way through the whole mass of papers so that the signature is written simultaneously on each and in perfect duplication. Consequently it is absolutely impossible fraudulently to withdraw one sheet and insert another with a signature, for it is only a matter of counting the number of dots or perforations marks in the signature on each sheet, and that which differs from the rest is obviously spurious. As many as eight sheets can be perforated by the pen at a time.

## The Payroll of the Navy.

To provide for the salaries and salaries of the officers and enlisted men of the navy during the fiscal year of 1911 it is going to cost \$10,000,000. Of this amount over \$5,000,000 will be spent to pay for the 44,000 enlisted men of the navy. The Navy Department figures that it costs the government \$100 a year to feed each man, or just \$8 a month. The payroll of the enlisted men in the navy during 1911 will aggregate nearly \$18,000,000. This sum will take care of 41,732 in the general service, 154 men in the insular force, and 1,154 prisoners under sentence by court martial.

About one-fourth of the men serving in the navy today have reenlisted. Of the 43,225 allowed by law 11,681 men are estimated as under reenlistment and entitled to participate in the allowances for reenlistment and continuous service. These figures do not take into consideration the 2,500 or more apprentices. Based on the men in the service in June last the average pay of the enlisted men was \$35.78 a month.

The perquisites allowed officers in the navy will aggregate nearly three-quarters of a million dollars in 1911. Of this amount \$744,440 will be spent in providing heat and light. The heaviest cost in the allowance granted the naval officers in addition to their pay is in the matter of housing. The officers are not accommodated in buildings or houses maintained by the government. The commutation of quarters will aggregate \$436,780 while the commutation of rations figured at 30 cents a day will reach a total of \$135,458.

## An Electric Plant Operated by an Air Turbine.

New Hamburg Germany is a small electric establishment concerning which the following interesting details have been published. The installation comprises 40 incandescent lamps and five electric motors, which drive a threshing machine, a hay cutter, a cream separator and two pumps. The total capacity is 40 kilowatts. The Harbours turbine has a wheel 46 feet in diameter mounted on top of a steel tower about 100 feet high. The apparatus begins to work as soon as the wind attains a velocity of 10 or 12 feet per second. In this region a total of this force can be counted on for 10 hours a day on the average. With a wind of 30 feet per second the power developed is 10 horse-power or 32 kilowatts. The installation also includes storage batteries and a gasoline motor for use in calm. The turbine operates so satisfactorily that it was operated entirely by a gasoline motor, cost only \$5,000. On the other hand, the annual cost of operation of the electric plant is only \$110, while that of the old plant was \$1,700.

The work of collecting the electric power of the New York Central Railroad on far as North Wales Station is proceeding with all the speed which can be obtained. The first day of next year it will be in full operation. The temporary installation at North Wales Station, where the electric locomotives are now running, was made by the New York Central Railroad. The new plant will be equipped with four 1,000-horse-power turbines and will generate 10,000 kilowatts of power, which will be used to operate the electric locomotives.



## Correspondence.

## A MATHEMATICAL QUERY

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN  
 If your correspondent in the issue of November 27th will study the following figures, he will plainly see that it is impossible to get 15 sets of 2 out of 15 so that no two numbers will be in the same set more than once.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15  
 4 6 8 9 12 13 3 14 9 11 2 15 12 13 6 15  
 7 8 9 12 13 5 15 12 13 6 14 8 11 12 13  
 10 12 13 4 15 4 10 11 12 13 5 14 8 11 12  
 12 14 15 10 15 6 13 5 7 14 6 11 13 15  
 Brooklyn N Y JOHN WHELAN

## LOCALIZED GASEOUS EXPLOSION

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN  
 The recent explosion of a gasoline tank on an automobile and also one in the vicinity of an autobomb both attended with fatalities has suggested to me a facile means of rendering these explosive harmless. A number of years ago I was reading a description of a powder factory and one of the means used to minimize danger was in the construction of magazines. In order to localize the effect of explosion, the warehouses and some of the factories were built on the edge of a river. This was not what I thought on the river were an extraordinarily strong while the side fringing and opening on the river was made correspondingly weak. An form seek the avenue of least resistance the least constructed were assigned to a gun barrel the explosion was localized and its force expended more or less harmlessly over the face of the stream. How easy can it be a gasoline explosion rendered innocuous to the occupants of a motor vehicle. Simply by making the reservoir analogous to a gun barrel. Constructing the back and barrel of the gasoline reservoir in cylindrical form of boiler plate say 1/4 inch thick the rear end pointing in the clear, toward the rear of the vehicle. The explosion that is similar to that of a rifle or shotgun and is directed harmlessly away from the occupants. The rear end may have valve seat bearing and be clamped in with a spring to resist ordinary wear vibration and pressure but yielding harmlessly to explosive force. Thus an explosion of gasoline in the reservoir need cost no more than a release of that volatile spirit, and the labor of reclaiming the rear end. G O McHarris

Horseshoe Tex

## ORTHOGONAL DIAGONAL OF A SILE

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN  
 We all know that the middle and western portions of this country are laid out in mile-square sections which can be continuously bisected to form home-stands of 160 acres and then smaller lots whose size and location can be briefly and accurately described. The last whole number that we reach by subdivision in this manner is 16 in 165 and this would form the sides of a square whose area would be 100 square rods.

Containing the bisection of this 165 feet through inches and fractions thereof we presently reach the length of 50,9375 inches which approximates to the U S military step by 0.0485 inch an amount inappreciable in actual measurement by pacing. Now this length of pace is that of the standard as here measured from the inside of the heel to the end of the heel. It is the length of the average human arm and arm-ends one of the feet and the other of 25 or 26 inches which also probably had its origin in the length of a pace. Being squared it will divide evenly of course into any of the above-mentioned divisions of land and the periphery of such square is 1/4 inch less than that of the standard wagon bed of the mile dia, which is coming more into use as a measure of capacity. If we make a cube of this dimension the contents of four such cubes would produce about the size of such wagon bed 1/10 inch an amount which would require careful measurement to detect. On such cube, filled with water would hold close to ten cubic feet of water more than the one-half ton of 1,000 pounds, and would divide into the cubic meter 100 times.

Such a remarkably good approximation to our standard measurement of capacity is to be of any use. We find that a cube of 1.2147 inches, which, cubed as before approximates the dimension of 2 of our standard length of 100 rods, and would divide into the cubic meter 100 times.

These measurements, useful to the military man, the surveyor, the farmer, the engineer and the scientist, are of such a nature that they can be used in any of the above-mentioned divisions of land and the periphery of such square is 1/4 inch less than that of the standard wagon bed of the mile dia, which is coming more into use as a measure of capacity. If we make a cube of this dimension the contents of four such cubes would produce about the size of such wagon bed 1/10 inch an amount which would require careful measurement to detect. On such cube, filled with water would hold close to ten cubic feet of water more than the one-half ton of 1,000 pounds, and would divide into the cubic meter 100 times.

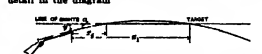
"quarter" half instead of so many times or so many minutes, "half" ten or "half" pushed instead of so many pounds or so many feet. Observe also that it contains one dimension in the effect of raising or lowering both front and rear sights simultaneously. On point-blank range the target front and rear sights lie in the same straight line when the gun is correctly pointed. The trajectory of the bullet is a curve intersecting this straight line in two points one of which is the center of the target. It therefore follows that if a rifle is correctly sighted for one range there is another range for which it is equally correct and it is the purpose of this article to show how these two points may be located at will by correctly arranging the elevation of both front and rear sights.

The most accurate shooting is done with 0.30-caliber rifles at ranges of from 25 to 30 yards and when once the sights are correctly set for one range no marksmen like to change them. It may therefore be of interest to know how they may be set for correct work at two ranges which may be a considerable distance apart.

The path of a projectile in vacuo is a parabola and since air resistance may be neglected for very short ranges and low velocities the parabola equation will be correct enough for our purposes. The equation is usually stated thus

$$y = x \tan \alpha - \frac{1}{2} g t^2$$

$y$  is the distance from the line of sights to the center of the gun barrel  $x$  the range  $g$  the acceleration of gravitation and  $\alpha$  the angle between the line of sights and the center of the gun barrel. The relation of these quantities is all shown in exaggerated detail in the diagram



Since the angle  $\alpha$  is quite small for short ranges we may replace  $\tan \alpha$  with unity which is practically its equivalent thus simplifying the equation this gives us

$$y = x \tan \alpha - \frac{1}{2} g t^2$$

Taking data from a Winchester 0.22 rifle equalized with glass sights and sighted for 75 feet we have  $y = 9/16$  inch = 0.0468 feet = 1.000 feet per second

$$161 \text{ ft}^2 \text{ per second}^2$$

$$\text{Thus } 0.0468 = x \tan \alpha - \frac{1}{2} g t^2$$

Reducing to the form  $x^2 + x + c = 0$  in which  $t$  is the time of flight

$$x^2 + x + \frac{1}{2} g t^2 = 0$$

$$x^2 + x + \frac{1}{2} g t^2 = 0$$

$$x^2 + x + \frac{1}{2} g t^2 = 0$$

Thus when one range is 75 feet the other is 39 feet which is too close to be of any use. We see that the 75-foot range is on the falling side of the curve so that a little greater distance will land the bullet below the mark.

To bring  $\alpha$  on the farther side of  $\alpha$  it is evidently necessary that  $y$  must be increased or in other words both the front and rear sights of the rifle must be elevated.

We will now find the value of  $y$  so that the gun will shoot correctly at both 75 and 150 feet. As before

$$x^2 + x + \frac{1}{2} g t^2 = 0$$

$$x^2 + x + \frac{1}{2} g t^2 = 0$$

$$x^2 + x + \frac{1}{2} g t^2 = 0$$

Thus by setting the front sight 2.17 inches above the center of the bore and elevating the rear sight 10.45 inches above the center of the bore it will be found also correct at 150 feet. Moreover it may be shown that 49 ft per second between 75 and 150 feet will the error never more than 1/4 inch. The angle of elevation of

sights may also be determined from the equation but it is much easier to get this angle right by means of trial shots, as it is very small and difficult to measure. Its determination is as follows: In equation (1) the sum of the roots equals the coefficient of  $x$  with its sign changed. Thus  $75 + 150 = 225 = - \tan \alpha$

$$\tan \alpha = 0.00088 \quad \alpha = 13 \text{ min } 37 \text{ sec}$$

Of course all the above results are based on the assumption that the velocity is 1,000 feet per second which is about correct for a 0.22 caliber rifle. Below is given a table in which the value of  $y$  is worked out for other velocities and ranges.

Air resistance, which causes the projectile to depart from the parabolic path will have the effect of causing the tabular values of  $y$  to be too low but this effect is not very noticeable for the short ranges and low velocities which are common in 0.22 caliber marksman.

The results are not intended to apply to high power rifles and long ranges although the departure of the projectile from a parabolic path does not alter the fact that any rifle may be correctly sighted for any two ranges within its limit.

Velocity in Feet per Second	Height in inches of front sight above center of gun barrel for different combinations of ranges in feet									
	25	50	75	100	125	150	175	200	225	250
1000	0.00088	0.00352	0.00784	0.01376	0.02112	0.02992	0.04016	0.05184	0.06496	0.07952
800	0.00110	0.00440	0.00990	0.01760	0.02750	0.03960	0.05390	0.07040	0.08910	0.10900
600	0.00165	0.00660	0.01485	0.02640	0.04140	0.05970	0.08130	0.10620	0.13450	0.16620
400	0.00275	0.01100	0.02475	0.04320	0.06600	0.09320	0.12480	0.16080	0.20120	0.24600
200	0.00550	0.02200	0.04950	0.08640	0.13200	0.18720	0.25280	0.32880	0.41520	0.51200

Warren O

WILLIAM C. WOOD

## The Slights of the Stridy

After referring to the original work of Prof. Lang and after describing accurately their methods of investigation Dr. H. B. Ives and W. V. Collins draw from their investigations the following very interesting (and as to the relative obfuscation of the light of the fiery and that of incandescent electric lamps)

The mean  $y$  of the light of the carbon filament lamp is 0.47 per cent in other words of all the energy as used only 0.47 per cent is converted into light. The tungsten lamp has an efficiency of 1.3 per cent and the mercury arc 3.4 per cent. The efficiency of the light of the fire is 0.1 per cent. The mean (the comparison in another form) the carbon filament lamp has an efficiency of 0.47 per cent mean hemispherical candle, the tungsten lamp 1.3 per cent candle and the incandescent arc 3.4 per cent candle. In comparison with the fire the efficiency of 0.02 watts per candle

## The Current Supplement

The current SUPPLEMENT No. 177 opens with an interesting article by the English correspondent of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN on the Madras Harbor Works which include a north breakers arc 1,000 feet long to protect a new entrance. E. A. Allcut writes on producer gas for engine fuel. While means of illumination have been developing and the organized systems of distribution have ramified throughout the community there has been another and very different development going on via the growth of a branch of the science of optics which deals with the measurement of luminous value and which has been embodied in what is so called illuminating engineering. Dr. A. D. Rowland writes on the transcendence and arc light in medicine.

Cartagena de Indias as it was termed by the old governments and no longer in Colombia as The Storck City has more of the tragic and melodramatic in her history than any other town on the western continent. The story of this community is told by Isaac A. Manning. The year 1900 marked the third hundred anniversary of the invention of the telescope. The occasion is fittingly described by Prof. J. L. H. Dreyer in an excellent article on the history of the invention of the telescope. Mr. Charles Rich adds Dodge contributes a brilliant on forest destruction by insects a tree forest fire.

The Battle River Viaduct of the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway 67 1/2 miles west of Winnipeg completed in December 1908 is a steel plate girder viaduct 2,774 feet long between abutments and 184 feet high from base of rail to low water or about 150 feet average height above ground. It comprises a 370 foot deck truss span crossing the main part of the river channel over 70-foot plate girder spans and fifty one 60-foot plate girder spans sitting on twenty six steel towers. Thus the tower spans are of equal length with the intermediate spans, 1 x 50 feet. The substructure is of concrete. The towers and most of the land footings being founded on piles.

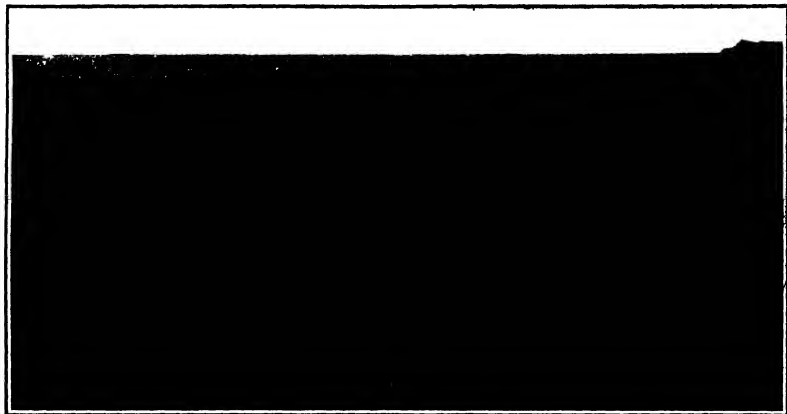
## THE NEW NAVAL HARBOR AT DOVER

BY THE ENGLISH CORRESPONDENT OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

The harbor facilities of the British Admiralty have been greatly extended by the recent completion of the new and extensive works at Dover at a cost of some £70,000,000. Dover is a point of considerable strategic

full fury of which appears to be concentrated or at any rate is experienced there. There was no convenient headland or other natural barriers of which advantage could be taken so that to convert the port

area of 610 acres, by the construction of a protection arm on the eastern side of the slight bay projecting 2,848 feet into the sea the reclamation of 1,000 feet of foreshore at the base of the cliffs the extension of the



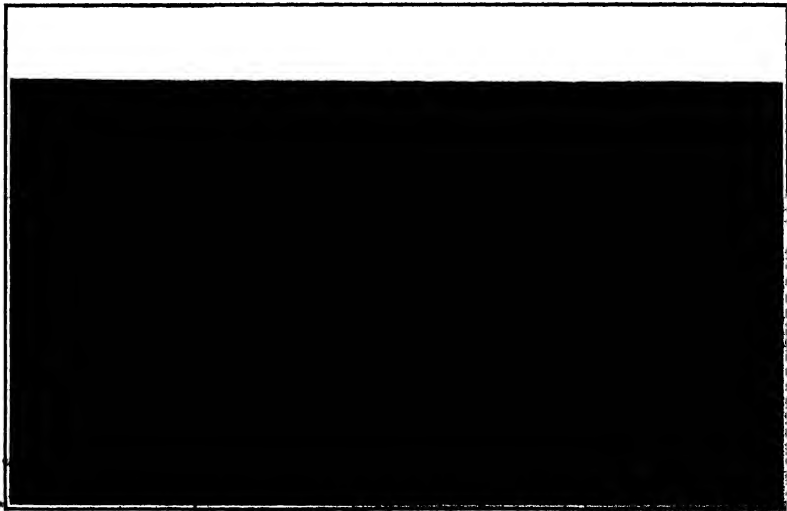
General view of the harbor from the east

cal importance and the necessity of some refuge for war vessels in its vicinity was advocated some hundred years ago. Unfortunately however its geographical situation is such that it is exposed to all winds between extreme east and extreme west the

into a harbor of refuge easily accessible in all weathers and which would be completely safe necessitated elaborate development works.

It was in 1895 that the government decided to convert the port into a national harbor with a low water

existing Admiralty pier used by the vessels engaged in the cross channel traffic with France and an island breakwater between the two extremities of the land arms 4,214 feet in length. The general design of the works may be gathered from the accompanying plan.

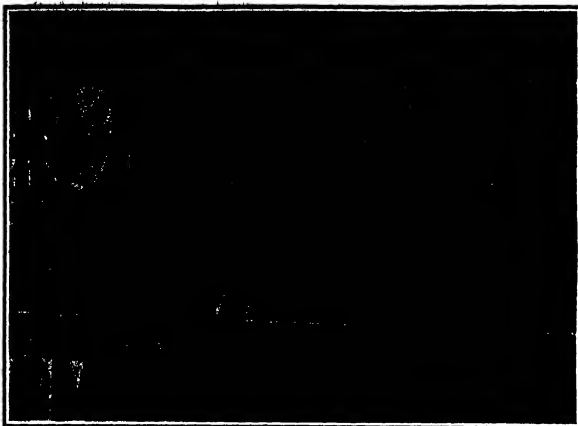


Reclaimed area in foreground of 22 acres where blocks were prepared and shipped and track to harbor, at present open.

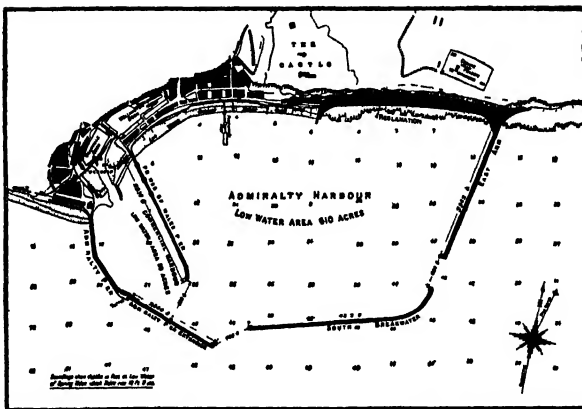
THE NEW NAVAL HARBOR AT DOVER

in which the new construction is to be situated by the notations indicated in full black. It will then be seen that an aggregate length of 11,154 feet or over two miles of break water has been constructed. As to the new wharves, the new wharves are connected by a gap between the western extremity of the new arm and the Admiralty pier 140 feet in width and on the eastern side by another gap 450 feet in width. By this means the harbor can be entered in any weather tidal circulation is promoted and all lying up within the enclosed area prevented. The arrangements provide for a water depth at the entrance ranging from 40 to 45 feet at low spring tides and as these tides rise nearly 10 feet it will be seen that at high spring tides the water depth is about 60 feet. Within the harbor itself a water depth at low tide up to 40 feet is available thus meeting the requirements of the largest war vessels. The contract for the undertaking was placed in 1897 with Messrs S Pearson & Sons Ltd of London to whose courtesy we are indebted for the accompanying illustrations.

The surveys showed that the sea bed consisted of chalk, chalk marl and flint so that a solid foundation could be secured for the masonry work. The work is car-



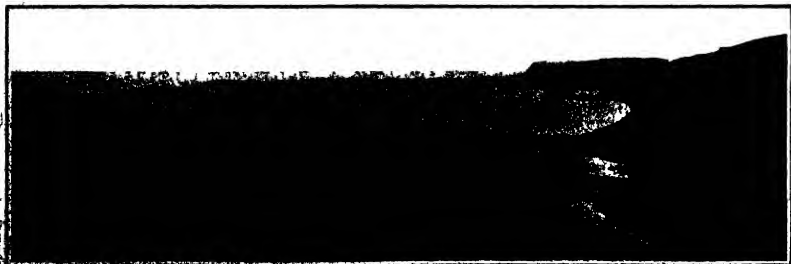
At entrance left, grab for clearing foundations. At right, diving bell ready to descend. At rear cranes for setting blocks below 100 feet level. Staging at the pierhead works.



Plan of the Dover harbor works. New structures shown in full black.

ried out in solid masonry the blocks ranging from 30 to 40 tons in weight and composed of 5 to 1 concrete. A large block making yard was established as soon as possible upon the area reclaimed from the sea and here two 40-ton gantry cranes for handling the blocks were erected. The material for the concrete was drawn from suitable points a few miles distant and a funicular railway was built to the top of the cliff for bringing the material down to the closely operated Messent concrete mixers which while the mixing operation was in progress traveled along an elevated track above the mounds and dumped their contents where and as required. In all 250,000 tons of Portland cement was consumed in the preparation of 1,300,000 cubic yards of concrete.

Actual construction was carried out from elaborate heavy timber staging the piles of which in some cases exceeded 100 feet in length. This staging was carried to a height of 40 feet above low water and the deck was provided with tracks for the manipulation of the various constructional appliances. These latter comprised Goliath cranes ranging from 40 to 60 tons capacity and with a radius of 160 feet. Four of these cranes were used simultaneously on the stage



Complete view of Dover Bay and Harbor. NEW ROYAL HARBOUR AT DOVER.



## CURIOSITIES OF SCIENCE AND INVENTION

## NEW METHOD OF CARRYING AN UNCONSCIOUS PERSON

A new method of carrying an unconscious person over a shoulder, instead of, as is otherwise practiced in being used by the New York Fire Department. Ordinarily the unconscious man is turned face downward and then lifted up on the knees after which he is placed across the fireman's shoulder. The new method consists of throwing the burden across the back over both shoulders, instead of one as heretofore. The right thigh and right upper arm of the man that is being carried are gripped between the fireman's arms and held close to the armpits. This leaves the fireman's hands and both legs free. Formerly the fireman had the use of but one hand and arm, making it a difficult matter to carry a victim down a scaling ladder. With the new method the weight of the burden is supported in a position where a maximum load can be carried with minimum exertion. The one that is rescued is firmly locked on the fireman's shoulders by the powerful muscles of the shoulders and upper arms. With both forearms and hands free the fireman can carry a burden down a vertical ladder without danger of falling and can even slide down the ladder after a little practice. To Dr. Charles H. Duane, whose work at one of the emergency hospitals of this city has brought him into contact with firemen and others injured at fires the New York Fire Department.

"How long did it take you to make them?" I inquired.  
"Time!" Oh don't mention it. I didn't dare keep any record. —Edward F. Bigelow

## A VACUUM CLEANER FOR CLEANING STREETS.

The war against dust which is now so successfully waged in houses by means of vacuum cleaning machines should undoubtedly be extended to include street cleaning. It is just as important to keep the dust down when sweeping streets and more so because street dust is always heavily laden with disease germs which are a constant menace to passersby and particularly to the street sweepers. A machine has just been perfected which works somewhat on the principle of the smaller household vacuum cleaners. The dirt and refuse of the surface over which the machine travels is gathered by rotating brushes and then by pneumatic power is sucked or lifted into conduits where the heavier parts of the refuse are extracted and deposited in closed receptacles. The fine dust which has been impossible for mechanical sweepers as heretofore devised to dispose of is carried onward in closed conduits and is let down so that it may be taken off in the form of silt. The suction machine is operated by the engine

## MOTOR AMBULANCE FOR DOGS.

A curious motor ambulance for dogs to be seen in the west end of London. This ambulance is the property of the Animals Hospital and is used for conveying dogs to and from it. It resembles a Noah's



## MOTOR AMBULANCE FOR DOGS.

Ark in shape and is drawn by a horse-power motor cycle to which it is attached by means of an ingenious coupling device which prevents the ambulance overturning when traveling around corners. The ambulance is mounted on easy springs, is fitted with pneumatic tires and is well padded inside in order to minimize vibration. Being motor drawn it can do long journeys expeditiously and ailing animals can be conveyed to the hospital without delay.

## A NOVEL BRIDGE CONSTRUCTION.

An emergency bridge construction which appears to have considerable merit, was recently exhibited before the British War Materials Committee. The bridge is made of three different pieces of material, all of which are of the same length. The first part, A, is the compressional member, and is the only part which would have to be carried in stock. Parts B and C are chopped out of timber or wrought iron while the rods O could be for use on the ends of the bridge. The construction of the bridge will be understood by referring to the members shown in dotted lines at the right hand end of the bridge. A member which runs through the last compressional members of the bridge serves as a pivot for two more compressional members that are carried by fulcrum on the beam. When the two compressional members are swung around as indicated by the arrows the bridge is drawn taut and serves to take its share of the load. In building up a bridge of this sort the tower and pile are supported on a boat or trestle while the engineers were adding the successive pairs of members to the shore and of the bridge until a sufficient span was produced to run across the stream. The construction was designed particularly



CARRYING THE MAN DOWN A SCALING LADDER.

LIFTING THE MAN ONTO THE BACK AND SHOULDERS.

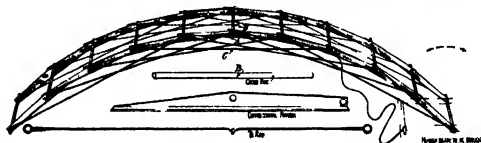
ment is indebted for this new and practical method of carrying an unconscious person.

## EXPERT CHAIN WHITTLING.

For several years I have been collecting specimens of expert jackknife whittling. Among those who have contributed specimens is Mr. George W. Lockwood, Long Ridge, Conn. About two years ago he supplied some specimens of chain whittling from a broom stick that were far above the ordinary. For a time I regarded them as the best in existence. A little later I obtained some triple chains from a Philadelphia expert that slightly excelled those by Mr. Lockwood, whose attention was called to the Philadelphia work. Mr. Lockwood determined to go him one better and the results were the two chains and ornaments shown herewith. These are by far better than any others I have been able to obtain. Each chain is from a piece of wood of broomstick shape, the cutting without break and done with an ordinary jackknife. The "hatted" bourgeois sections are especially handsome and admirably done. The finer pieces turn easily in sets or sections. As will be readily seen the links are symmetrically shaped and well finished.

with it propels the machine at a low rate of speed, being utilized in the process of separating and refining the dust.

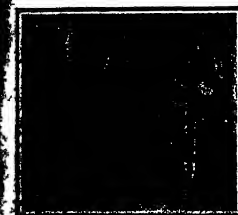
By actual tests recently made the machine is



NOVEL TEMPORARY BRIDGE CONSTRUCTION.

under conditions this sweeper has shown its ability to clean in an hour as much street area as the old fashioned horse-drawn sweeper will sweep or brush in six hours.

for so in reinforcing it on a new arch. When used in this way the compressional bars could be placed at the outside and after the concrete had set they could be removed for use in building the next arch.



VACUUM CLEANER FOR CLEANING STREETS.





# This is the Flag Peary Nailed to the Pole



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The most significant trophy of modern times. Warned by the midnight sun and drenched in the fogs and snows of the Arctic, it has waved at the apex of the earth, where a day and a night are a year, and every direction is south. No battle flag was ever planted in the enemy's stronghold after struggles as severe as those which earned this banner to the goal. It is the Star Spangled symbol of courage and endurance and faith beyond comparison. It is the emblem of man's conquest over every obstacle, the triumph of spirit over matter.

We have taken this priceless trophy, symbolic of all that is strongest and most enduring in American character, and have reproduced it in fac-simile in colors on the cover of the February number of *Hampton's Magazine*. Every man, woman and child in America should preserve this reproduction among their most treasured possessions. The magazine can be bought, but the flag cannot—like all priceless things, it can only be given away.

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Charles Edward Russell shows clearly and tells why the colonial forces of Huntington Harman and others were side out of the Southern Pacific and other railroads.

Other articles of timely importance by Lincoln Steffens, Vance, Thompson, Judson C. Wallver, Samuel Heph, Adams, Judge Harry's Dickson, John L. Matthews, F. G. F. Lyle, Jr., General.

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# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

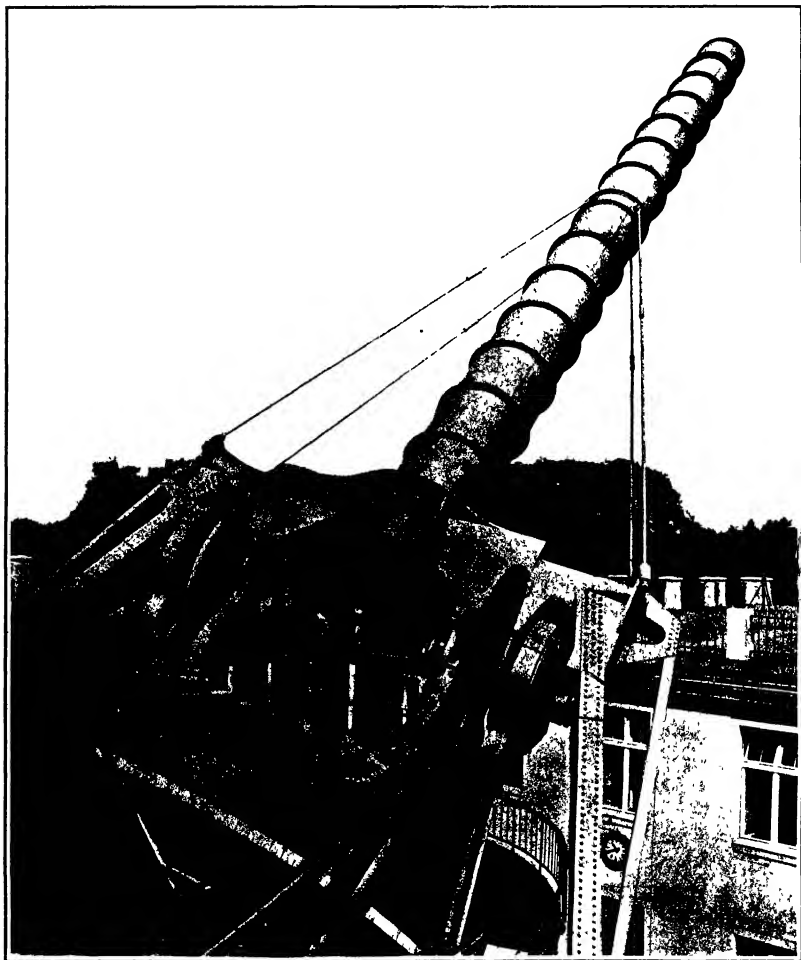
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Vol. 418, No. 8  
SATURDAY, JAN. 10, 1910

NEW YORK, JANUARY 10, 1910

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The longest telescope in the world at Tientsin, near Peking: total length 60 feet; has 27 inches in diameter.

A GREAT OPEN-AIR TELESCOPE. [See page 104.]





# A NEW ERA OF THE AMERICAN LOCOMOTIVE

## TWO REMARKABLE ENGINES

It is not stretching the point too far to say that the design of the locomotive herewith illustrated, one for passenger and the other for freight service, marks a new era in the development of the American steam locomotive. This is particularly true of the passenger

This has been done in both engines by utilizing the great length of boiler space afforded by the articulated system of construction. As will be seen from our sectional view, the boiler proper terminates above the high-pressure cylinders. The shell, however, is ex-

tended to the low-pressure cylinders, the heat so taken up by the steam serving in each case to raise the heat energy of the latter. Finally the gases pass through a large nest of tubes, around which the feed water is caused to circulate and is raised to the



Weight of engine and tender, 80 tons. Tractive force, 84,000 lbs. Heating surface, 4,700 square feet. Steam pressure, 180 pounds. Superheating and reheating surfaces, 1,410 square feet. 4 cylinders. Two high pressure, 24 inches by 24 inches. Two low pressure, 24 inches by 24 inches. Driving wheels, 73 inches.

### The most powerful passenger locomotive in existence.—A new type

ger locomotive, with which, by the introduction of the Mallet articulated piston, it has become possible to haul heavy fast passenger trains which with the present type of locomotive, it is necessary to run in two sections. Moreover, so powerful is this engine that it can haul over the heavy grades of the mountain divisions transcontinental trains which at present call for the assistance of an extra locomotive.

The Mallet articulated freight locomotive is already familiar, but the claim to distinction of the truly mammoth affair recently built for the Santa Fe Railroad is based on its great weight of 80 tons and its tractive force of 84,000 lbs., both of which figures greatly exceed those for any previous freight locomotive. Both locomotives were built by the Baldwin Locomotive Works for the Atchafalpa & Santa Fe Railroad.

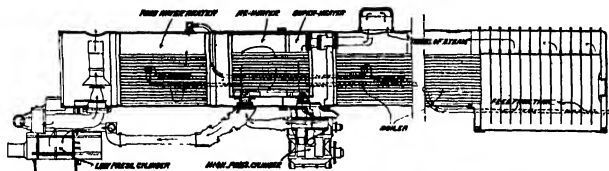
The most important novelty, common to both engines, and the one which marks a distinctly new era in locomotive practice in this country, lies in the means which have been taken to transform the locomotive from one of the most wasteful into a reasonably economical power plant (if we may use the term)

tended forward to the low-pressure cylinders, and within it are placed two nests of fire tubes, through both of which the hot gases pass on their way to the smokestack. The first of these is divided by a diaphragm into a superheater and a re-heater, the second forms the feed water heater.

Now, in the ordinary locomotive the gases, still very hot, after emerging from the front end of the fire tube, pass out through the smokestack and waste an

boiling point, as it travels from the tank on the tender to the boiler.

The advantages of this system are that not only is a much larger percentage of the heat energy of the fuel turned into useful work, but the superheating and reheating enable the well-known economies of compounding to be realized to the fullest extent. As a consequence the coal consumption per ton mile has been reduced by approximately fifty per cent, ten per cent of which is estimated to be due to superheating and reheating, fifteen per cent to feed water heating, and twenty-five per cent to compounding. These figures are at present merely an estimate, but we see no reason why, with proper firing and intelligent handling of the throttle, these great economies



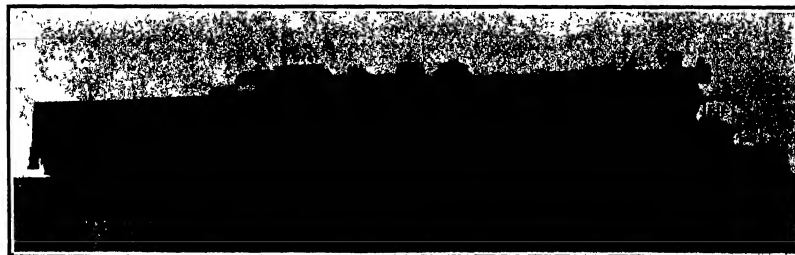
In this boiler part of the heat in the furnace gases which is ordinarily lost through the smokestack, is utilized to superheat and reheat the steam on its way to the cylinders and to heat the feed water before it enters the boiler.

### The new boiler which saves 25 per cent of fuel

consumes amount of useful heat into the atmosphere. The Santa Fe locomotives return a large part of this heat to the boiler and engine. Referring to the diagram, it will be noticed that these heat recovery devices first serve to raise the temperature of the steam as it passes from the steam dome to the high pressure cylinder. Then the gases yield up still more of their heat to the exhaust steam as it passes from

should not be realized in actual service. The Santa Fe passenger locomotive embodies the first attempt to apply the articulated system to passenger service. The proportions are enormous, far exceeding any existing passenger locomotive either here or abroad. As far as cylinder and driving wheel arrangements are concerned, the engine is practically a combination of the

(Continued on page 115)



Weight of engine and tender, 80 tons. Tractive force, 84,000 lbs. Heating surface, 4,700 square feet. Steam pressure, 180 pounds. Superheating and reheating surfaces, 1,410 square feet. 4 cylinders. Two high pressure, 24 inches by 24 inches. Two low pressure, 24 inches by 24 inches. Driving wheels, 73 inches.

### The most powerful locomotive. Weight, 80 tons.

A NEW ERA OF THE AMERICAN LOCOMOTIVE.



## PUTTING OLD NEPTUNE TO WORK

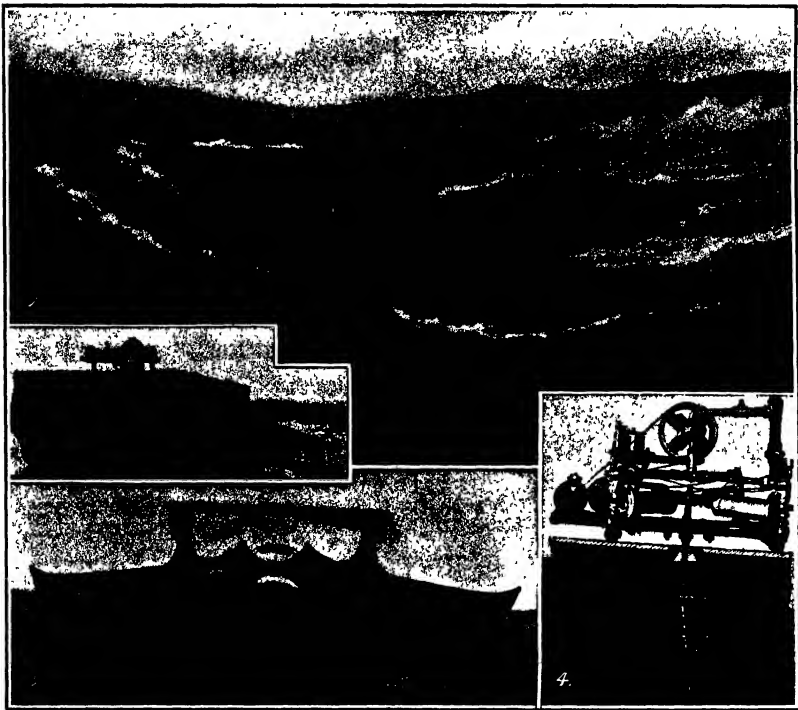
Twice each day millions of tons of shipping in New York Harbor are lifted to a height of over four feet and dropped the same distance by the tide. This same work is done in every port to a greater or less degree. Many a man has enviously considered this enormous expenditure of power and racked his brains for a means of putting it to valuable service. However, the work done by the tide is enormous only because of its vast extent and herein lies the delusion which many an inventor has failed to discover until he has devoted much thought and time on evolving a tide motor. The work done in raising of the "Lust Lania," for instance, which weighs 40,000 tons, represents an expenditure of energy of only sixteen horse-

is utilized to operate a series of pistons pumping air into a compressed air tank. The compressed air tank and four pairs of cylinders are mounted on the main float. The piston rods are connected at their outer ends to the four floats and when these floats are rocked by the waves they serve to reciprocate the pistons and pump the air. This action takes place regardless of the direction in which the waves are traveling because the auxiliary floats extend in four directions.

An entirely different method of utilizing the force of the waves is shown in Fig. 2. This consists of a large crib placed in the water and having one end open so that the waves will wash up over the floor of the crib as they do on an ocean beach. At the back of the crib

rock to and fro the piston is raised first in one direction and then the other, and this motion serves to pump air into a tank. The air from the tank operates a pneumatic motor which in turn drives a dynamo and generates electricity. In order to prevent the floats to swing about in any direction without danger of fouling the anchor there one of the floats is mounted on a swivel which is securely anchored. By means of contact wheels engaging contact rings on the swivel the electricity generated is conveyed to a pair of cables which extend to the shore.

The construction shown in Fig. 4 depends for its operation on an entirely different principle. It is well known that the wave disturbance of the ocean does



Four novel methods of utilizing the power of the waves.

## PUTTING OLD NEPTUNE TO WORK

power, this being due to the fact that the tide acts very slowly, taking six hours to raise the vessel to a height of four feet.

However, there is another form of energy displayed by the ocean which is far more powerful than that of the tide, and here there appears to be more opportunity for capturing a portion of this power and devoting it to practical use. The waves of the ocean are not as deliberate as the tides and the chief difficulty with which the inventor must contend is that in time of storm they develop entirely too much energy and are apt to wreck his machines.

In the accompanying engraving we illustrate some recent constructions which have been devised for the purpose of obtaining power from the waves. That shown in Fig. 1 consists of a large square float on which the principal mechanism is mounted. Hinged to this float are four auxiliary floats and the rocking motion between the auxiliaries and the main float that

are a pair of curved deflecting walls below which is placed a triangular casing provided with a series of swinging doors or vanes. When the waves wash up the floor of the crib they close the vanes against the rising and divided by the prow of the casing are directed against the deflecting walls. The rear of the triangular casing is opened, permitting the water to flow through as the wave recedes and strike against the rear faces of the vanes opening them to the position shown in the illustration. The vanes are geared to a series of piston rods which operate the cylinders to fill a compressed-air chamber. The latter, by means of a pair of air motors operates a dynamo and generates electricity which may be conveyed to any desired spot and utilized.

Fig. 2 shows a construction similar to Fig. 1, making use of the rocking of two floats. The floats are hinged to each other and one carries a rack adapted to engage a piston mounted on the other float. As the floats

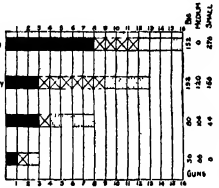
not extend to any great depth and it is the relative motion of the surface water with respect to the water at a considerable depth that is made use of in this case to generate power. A float is provided from the center of which projects a shaft fitted at its lower end with a set of radial fins. When the float is rocked by the waves the shaft tends to remain vertical owing to these fins. Mounted on the float are a series of cylinders provided with the usual pistons which are connected to an extension of the vertical shaft just referred to, and while the pistons remain virtually fixed the cylinders are reciprocated upon them by the rocking of the float. The pistons serve to circulate oil through a rotary engine which in turn drives a dynamo and thus generates electricity. When the wave motion becomes too violent an electrically-operated valve permits a portion of the oil to circulate without passing through the motor and thus an excessive speed is prevented.

## FOREIGN NAVAL PROGRESS IN 1909.

BY FRANK L. UHLER.

During the year just closed considerable naval activity has been manifested abroad. Not only have the principal naval powers adopted large programs of new construction and made good progress with those already in existence, but the minor powers have shown in a practical manner how wide-spread a hold the Dreadnought revolution has taken on the mind of the world.

Great Britain during 1909 has finished the last of the trio of battleship-destroyers of the *Invincible* type, of the details of which readers of the *Scientific American* are already fully aware through the publication of the "Indefatigable" at the Hudson Fulton celebration. The three battleships of the 1907 programme—the *Bulwark*, the *Teneriffe* and the *Repulse*—have all been passed into service. They are of 18,000 tons, 700 more than the "Dreadnought," but differ only in having sixteen 4-inch 21 pounders for their antitorpedo armament as compared with twenty-four 12 pounders. The end of the year saw also the completion of the battleship *Vanguard*, of the 1907 programme, which was turned out by Vickers, Sons & Maxon in the record time for any ship since the "Dreadnought" herself, of 19 months. The "Hilfsvind" and "Göttingen," completing the 1907 triad, will be commissioned this spring. All are of 18,500 tons, and have ten 12-inch "Oscar" guns (the main armament of the others is 45 calibers) and twenty 4-inch rapid fire weapons. The thickness of the main belt is reduced to 9½ inches in these ships compared with 11 inches in the earlier vessels, but a larger area of the hull is protected by thick armor. Other vessels passed into service during the year include the unarmored cruiser "Baudouin," of 3,300 tons and 25 knots, designed to act as mother ship to the destroyer flotilla, a number of 31-knot destroyer "Adriol" (which had to be accepted at 37½ knots) "Cruzeiro," "Anson" "Marengo," "Maori," "Viking" and "Zulu." A new type of submarine has been completed. This is the "D" of 800 tons, which showed



## FOREIGN NAVAL PROGRESS IN 1909.

unusual speed submerged. She is fitted with twin screws, and has a steaming radius of 4,000 miles.

The vessels launched during the year are the battleship "Neptune," of 20,250 tons, with the same armament as the earlier "Dreadnought," but so arranged that there is a broadside of the whole ten heavy guns, and the armored cruiser "Indefatigable," 18,000 tons, carrying the same battery as the "Invincible," but longer, enabling a wider area on either beam to be covered by the whole battery. A number of small cruisers and destroyers have also been launched.

Three new battleships have been commenced. They are the "Hercules," "Volcano," and "Orion," of the same displacement as the "Neptune," but with five 12-inch gun turrets arranged axially. The armored cruiser "Lion," also laid down will be of 26,000 tons and 25 to 26 knots, and will carry ten 12-inch guns.

Germany has had a record year in naval construction. She has completed her first two Dreadnoughts, the "Naum" and "Westfalen," of 18,500 tons and armed with twelve 11-inch and twelve 5.9-inch guns. Both ships exceeded 20½ knots on trial, although designed for 19½. The armored cruiser "Blücher" has been commissioned as flagship of the High Sea Fleet's cruiser squadron. This ship is 15,000 tons and has the British "Invincible," but she is nevertheless a powerful ship, displacing 15,000 tons and steaming 24½ knots on trial. Her armament consists of twelve 8.8-inch and eight 5.9-inch guns, and a 18-inch gun. The battleship "Rheinland" slated to the "Naum" is now running her trials, and the "Pommern" will follow this spring.

Five large battleships are to take the water during the year. Three of these are battleships—the "Graf von Helldorf," "Thuringen," and "Helmstadt," each of 20,000 tons. They are the first German ships to be armed with 12-inch guns, and the "Helmstadt" has a 45-caliber weapon firing a 981-pound shot. Twelve of these guns will be carried as well as a similar number of 6.7-inch. In armament at least, therefore, these ships will be greatly superior to any British ship yet

launched. The armored cruiser "Von der Tann" has also been launched. She is of 17,000 tons and will steam 26 knots, her armament comprising ten 11-inch and a secondary battery. It is believed, of 5.9-inch guns. The cruiser "G" following toward the close of the year, is a sister ship.

Two small cruisers, the "Kolberg" and "Malm," have been completed. They are of 3,000 tons, carry five 4-inch guns, and steamed 27 to 28 knots on trial. The completion of destroyers continues a factor of naval strength in which Germany leads the world. The 1906 programme of 18 destroyers is in commission at a time when those of the British programme for the same year are only being launched.

Three battleships have been laid down, similar to the "Helmstadt," but equipped with torpedoes. They are the "Ernst Prützner," "Ernst Hildebrandt," and "Ernst Heindrich." The armored cruiser "H" of the 1906 programme, was laid down in December, 1908, in advance of the orthodox date. Two more small cruisers, twelve destroyers and some submarines have also been laid down.

All the French battleships of the "Danton" class have now been launched. They are of 18,400 tons and will steam 26 knots, carry four 12-inch and twelve 5.9-inch guns. A start has been made in the re-equipment of the Russian navy, and four battleships were laid down at the end of the year. They will carry twelve 12-inch and sixteen 4.7-inch guns. They are the "Borodino," "Seydlitz," and "Poltava," and on a displacement of 18,500 tons. They will be built under the supervision of the British firm of John Brown & Co. Their names are "Oleg," "Petropavlovsk," "Sevastopol," and "Poltava," and on a displacement of 18,500 tons. They will be built under the supervision of the British firm of John Brown & Co. Their names are "Oleg," "Petropavlovsk," "Sevastopol," and "Poltava," and on a displacement of 18,500 tons.

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The progress of Japan is difficult to follow, owing to the contradictory reports that emanate from that country. However, the battleships have been built under the supervision of the British firm of John Brown & Co. Their names are "Oleg," "Petropavlovsk," "Sevastopol," and "Poltava," and on a displacement of 18,500 tons. They will be built under the supervision of the British firm of John Brown & Co. Their names are "Oleg," "Petropavlovsk," "Sevastopol," and "Poltava," and on a displacement of 18,500 tons.

Among the lesser powers Italy has laid down two large ships. The "Dante Alighieri" and "Cavour" (late "Leonardo da Vinci") will carry twelve 12-inch, and the "Michael Angelo" and "Gallo-Gallo" it is reported, eight 14-inch. Austria has launched three battleships and proposes to build four 18,000-ton vessels as soon as financial difficulties have been over come. The first of the three Spanish ships, the "Pana," has been commenced, and will carry eight 12-inch guns on such a low displacement as 14,700 tons. The Brazilian "Atenas Grande," with twelve 12-inch guns, completed, the "Rio de Janeiro" has recently been laid down. The Argentine is going to have two battleships built, and Chile one. A Chinese naval officer is touring Europe to obtain advice as to the best of placing orders for three 16,000-ton ships; Turkey has sent Admiral Gumble back to England with instructions as to the ordering of two battleships, and Great Britain has allocated five million pounds for the purchase of an armored ship from an Italian firm.

## HOW AN AMATEUR MAY FIND HALLER'S COMET.

BY REV. J. W. MOORE.

Thinking it a laudable ambition to be the first amateur to find Haller's comet, I have been working with my Hubble telescope for several weeks trying to locate it. I have not learned as yet that I am the first, but being confident that I have succeeded in finding it, I have thought that other amateurs might like to know how it might be done. Hence the easy method here described may also be employed by amateurs in other simple studies of the heavens. I have gone somewhat into details. Despite the fact that some astronomical journals have said that it would be some time before the comet in question could be seen in a small telescope, it can now be seen in even a 3-inch—indeed, of course, one knows where to direct the telescope.

So the first problem to ascertain the position of the comet. There are very few amateurs who have telescopes mounted with circles. Hence we must

adopt a plan that will enable us to find it without such aids. Of course it would be an easy task to locate it if one had all the equipment of an observatory, merely by setting the telescope in the proper right ascension and declination.

Now if we turn to the recent lists of the *Revue Astronomique*, we may find the right ascension and declination given for every star during January and February. The data for the intermediate days can be easily deduced by taking half the difference of any two alternate days and adding it to the reading of the previous day. Next we select a good star near Upsilon's place, the one recommended in Young's *Astronomy*, and is the best for the average student. Such a star should be one of the first books owned by an amateur. Almost any good library or observatory will furnish you with such an atlas if one is not already at hand. Then with the almanac before you follow the course of the comet from day to day by tracing the right ascension and declination on the map. Note the day when the readings first come close to some prominent star. This will be the time to put the method to trial. In order to know exactly how near the comet will be to the star, consult the *Nautical Almanac* or any other source accessible to find the R. A. and declination of Upsilon or other star atlas will give the data for some of the stars.

By this process I found that on the evening of November 20th the comet was to be near Alderamin in Taurus, so I began in good season to make my trial. The evening before I made four carefully constructed charts of the star visible in my field of view. I used my 45-power telescope, and the field of view was 1 minute or 43 minutes of arc, in the field. Upsilon on page 14 gives the R. A. of Alderamin as 4 h. 40 min., and the Dec as +16 degrees 19 min. The R. A. of the comet on that night was 4 h. 40 min., and the Dec. +15 degrees 55 min. The R. A. is the same, and the Dec. places it 23 min. south of Alderamin. This would bring it within the field of view of the telescope. One can estimate quite accurately the number of minutes of arc within the field of view of the telescope by sighting it upon some object whose size is known. The moon is suitable for the smaller powers. It is 33

6 P. M. central standard 11 P. M. central standard time. Jan. 14th, 1910. Jan. 14th, 1910.

A is a small double star, B is a star of the 3rd magnitude, C is a very fine star. The collection of stars in Hubble's comet.

min. of arc in diameter. Epitaph Lyrae may be used for the higher powers. The two principal stars of this double (in reality a quadruple star) are 2 min. apart. My 200-power microscope was a field of view of about 6 or 7 min. Now if the polar axis of the telescope is pointed exactly to Polaris, it would be necessary only to make one map of the desired area and estimate the distance to the south. I had my telescope, on this particular evening, directed from a secondary window and was not sure of my exact polar location, so I drew the four maps, hoping to be more certain of locating the comet within the last. In making such observations and trying for a definite location north or south, east or west, one must bear in mind the fact that an astronomical telescope inverts the object. A little study with the moon, which can also be observed with the naked eye, will help to straighten out this matter. Now after making these four maps on the evening of the 29th, I planned to observe carefully the next evening to see if I had any object in view not viewed the night before. But the evening of the 29th was dimly illuminated by the coming rising of the moon, while the second evening was much darker. I found that the comet was in view. While I had thus planned to locate the comet by a process of addition (and this would have been more desirable as it would have enabled a more careful scrutiny) I decided to look for it the next evening by a process of elimination. So on the evening of the 30th I carefully made four new maps of the same area like those shown in the engraving and made about two weeks ago. Something the story or story star appears in the map. I had marked the position of the comet on the map, and I indicated this position by a small circle. So I concluded that this was the comet. I have often verified it by a sketch furnished me by a friend. It appeared in my telescope it had no such peculiar characteristics as a tail to enable me to readily recognize it. (Continued on page 114.)





## A GREAT OPEN-AIR TELESCOPE

BY PROF. S. A. MITCHELL  
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

A giant telescope has been erected in Germany having for its main purpose the making of astronomical observations through exhibitions to the public of the heavy "city lights." The United States has repeatedly felt how Germany in her advance along scientific lines and it is now a splendid opportunity to emulate her by the erection of a great public telescope (say) in New York City.

A contrast of this new German telescope at Trepow (near Berlin) with the highest development of American manufacture proves of the greatest interest. In the *Yerkes telescope* (see *Scientific American*, December 4th, 1909) we have a great instrument given over to exact research, handled by a corps of expert astronomers, leaders in their special lines of work. Prof. E. S. Barnard is there with his keen eye for the measurement of the positions of comets, star clusters, etc., for the depicting of slight planetary details, or with the help of the photographic plate for the portrayal of Mars on a large scale. The greatest living authority on double stars, Prof. S. W. Burnham spends two nights each week with the great 40 inch refractor. The director, Prof. E. F. Prall, takes care of the special telescope side of astronomy by photographing the spectra of stars for the determining of their motions in the line of sight and by day time the telescope is made use of to learn of interesting phenomena about the sun. This great telescope is a model of engineering perfection with its great tube and massive parts rising from a solid base. It is mounted in what is known as the equatorial form.

But how different is the Trepow telescope! Erected with other purposes in view, it is not necessary to have expert scientists to keep the telescope equipped almost every hour during the day and night constructed under a different plan it is unnecessary to have a great elevating tier inside of a huge rotating dome, for in fact the dome is done away with and the telescope is back to the open air! This then brings something radically new in the old scheme of astronomy, something entirely different in the construction of a great telescope. And this new form of instrument has many points in its favor that make it a most interesting telescope.

The director of the Trepow Observatory, Dr. F. S. Archenhold, by his radical ideas came into opposition with the German scientists who clung to the idea of placing in the open air with no protection from the wind a great tube 68,910 feet in length seven feet longer than the *Yerkes telescope* (62 feet). But undaunted, Dr. Archenhold persevered and finally won the necessary sufficient funds for the erection of the largest telescope in the world. And this, too, in scientific Germany!

The front page illustration shows the Trepow telescope. The old equatorial form of mounting was departed from, for this requires that the eyepiece of the telescope be raised through a vertical distance approximately half the length of the telescope tube in viewing a star overhead and one near the horizon. This necessitated a very expensive elevating fork run by electric motors (see *Scientific American*, December 26th, 1909). By placing the telescope tube in a great fork and employing suitable counterpoises Dr. Archenhold was able to have the eyepiece over the center of motion and run the telescope tube upward into the air. The details of this are readily seen by referring to the illustration. This eliminated the rising fork and saved many thousands of dollars. The new forked mounting, with its heavy movable parts placed on a solid concrete foundation insured a stable instrument and as the whole construction had no

great height it became possible to house the telescope by turning the long telescope tube into a horizontal position and pulling over it a cheap portable hood by using the telescope in the open air it became possible to entirely eliminate the great dome, and thereby save again more thousands of dollars. The result of these plans were that Dr. Archenhold was able to build the completed instrument for the modest sum of \$62,500. Of this sum \$11,500 was spent for the tube, which was made of the celebrated Jena glass ground of the old-established firm of Schott, in Munich. The lens is 37 inches in diameter, and is as excellent one.

The radical departure from old-established forms is eliminating the dome has many points in its favor besides the mere saving of money, and also many drawbacks. As is well known to astronomers, the temperature of the night air is continually falling (especially in the early part of the night), and it is impossible to have the air in the interior of the dome at the same temperature as the outside air. This causes the heated air to pour out through the slit of the dome, and also produces currents of air in the interior of the telescope tube itself. All of this makes "bad seeing," and a distortion of the telescope images—the bane of the astronomer of the professional astronomer.



View taken under the mounting, showing the electric motors for driving the telescope.

### A GREAT OPEN-AIR TELESCOPE

Dr. Archenhold's plan of doing without a dome eliminates most of the effects of air currents, for there is no "dome effect," as astronomers call it, and the air in the telescope tube quickly takes the temperature of that outside. Here, then, is a decided advantage. But unfortunately the telescope being in the open air makes it the apt of every passing wind, and even a slight wind is apt to set up a vibration in the telescope, especially so when the tube is so long as in the Archenhold telescope, which is supported not in the middle, as in the ordinary telescope, but entirely at one end. Though the vibrations may be small and imperceptible to the eye, still when the telescope is pointed at a fixed star the immense magnifying power of the long telescope would make even the slightest tremors readily visible and would spoil the use of the instrument for accurate work. It would seem that for the important researches of the exact astronomer the open-air telescope would be a failure, but for public exhibitions only it is another story. The absence of dome and rising fork eliminates a great amount of the expense, and the modest amount of the popular subscriptions can be all put into the construction of a telescope thus obtaining a much larger instrument. The telescope is raised and a star located by means of a 4-horsepower electric motor. In order to have the telescope pointed correctly at the celestial object,

it is necessary to drive the telescope to make it move from east to west, otherwise owing to the earth's rotation the object would quickly move from the field of the telescope. In the Trepow telescope both observer and instrument must be moved and the details of how this is done by a 4-horsepower motor regulated by clockwork can be seen in the smaller illustration.

### The Cost of Our Navy.

IT COSTS A GOOD DEAL OF MONEY TO RUN A NAVY.

The actual expense of running the navy of the United States for the past fiscal year amounted to \$43,750,000. In this sum is included everything, from the pay of enlisted men to the repairs and equipment of vessels and the vessels include the tug and receiving ships as well as the battleships.

The battleship "Tennessee," flagship of the Atlantic fleet, may be taken as an example of the cost of keeping a vessel of that type in service. The pay of officers and enlisted men attached to this vessel with the other expenses amounted to more than \$190,000 during the fiscal year just passed. The Atlantic fleet in that period included sixteen first-class war vessels, six of the "Connecticut" type, five of the "Georgia" class, and the others ranging from 13,000 tons to 21,000 tons. The average cost of keeping a vessel of the "Georgia" class in commission, not including repairs, is \$477,000 a year.

The classes below the "Georgia" require expenditures ranging from \$633,000 to \$904,000. While the figures will vary for the same vessels in different years, the cost changes very little from year to year for the same class. \$10,521,000 was the total cost for running the sixteen ships of the Atlantic fleet for the past year. There were twenty-three first-class battleships in commission last year, and the total cost of keeping them in service exclusive of repairs, was \$13,035,000, making an average cost for running them \$559,084. On all these ships the repairs amounted to only \$100,496.

It might seem strange, but it is a fact nevertheless, that it costs more to maintain a cruiser than it does a battleship. There were ten armored cruisers in commission last year, the total cost of running them amounting to \$7,150,000, or an average per ship of \$715,000.

It would seem at the present time that there is to be no limit to the increased size of future battleships, and naturally there will be an increased cost of running expenses. For instance, the latest battleship to be placed in commission, the "Michigan" and the "South Carolina," each require a crew of 51 officers and 818 men. These vessels are of 16,000 tons displacement. The next that will be ready for service are the "Delaware" and "North Dakota," each of 20,000 tons displacement. Each of these fighting crafts will require 55 officers and 878 men. There will come the "Florida" and "Utah," each of a normal displacement of 21,000 tons. The midshipmen of the sea will have in their respective compartments 60 officers and 954 men. But we have not reached the "Florida" yet. The contracts have already been let for the "Arkansas" and the "Oregon." Remember the "Oregon" of Spanish American war days? Well, that is only half a battleship besides these. They displace 26,000 tons each, with a crew of 1,600 men, and 55 officers to command.

The Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company reports that on certain of its lines in that city since the introduction of "pay-as-you-enter" street cars, the number of accidents to persons has decreased 74 per cent. This remarkable change is attributed to the arrangement of closed doors and steps, making it impossible for passengers to get on or off of the cars in such a careless manner.

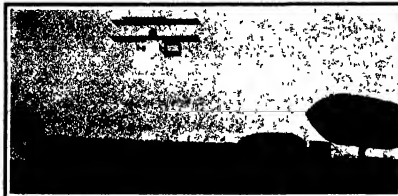
## AMERICA'S FIRST AVIATION MEET AT LOS ANGELES

DETAILED ACCOUNT OF THE FLIGHTS MADE BY THE AMERICAN AND FRENCH AVIATORS

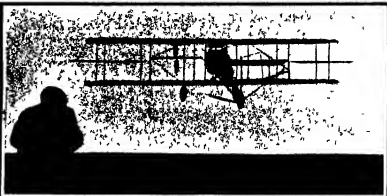
The first aviation meeting to be held in this country opened at Los Angeles, Cal., on the 10th instant. Louis Paulhan, the record-breaking French aviator, was present with two Farman biplanes and two Bleriot monoplanes. America was represented by Glenn Curtiss, C. P. Willard, and C. K. Hamilton, all of whom flew Curtiss biplanes. The field that served as an aerodrome

was located a few miles from Los Angeles. It was not an ideal place for flying since it was not level. One end of the field was at a considerably higher elevation than the other and the machines were, therefore, obliged to fly quite high in order to pursue a level course. A hexagonal course of 1.61 miles was used. Only a few short flights were made by Messrs

Curtiss and Willard the first day. Messrs. Deacy and Knabenhus, in their dirigible balloons, flew 200 feet above the grand stand against a wind of 10 to 12 miles an hour. Paulhan made his initial flight of 8½ minutes at this time, covering an estimated distance of 3½ miles. In the second flight he remained aloft 10 minutes. His third flight lasted 22 minutes. He



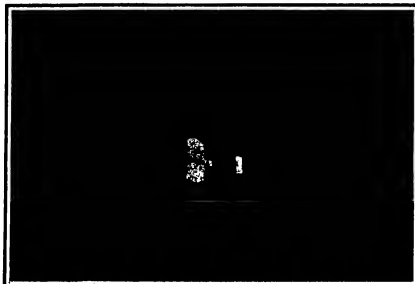
The two Farman biplanes flying in front of the grand stand.  
The Knabenhus and Deacy dirigibles are seen at the right.



Chas. P. Willard flying in the Curtiss biplane of the Aero-Naval Society.  
Mr. Willard won the prize for sighting upon a square having 25-foot sides.



Mure and Mons. Louis Paulhan.  
The daring French aviator and his wife held the record for cross-country flying.

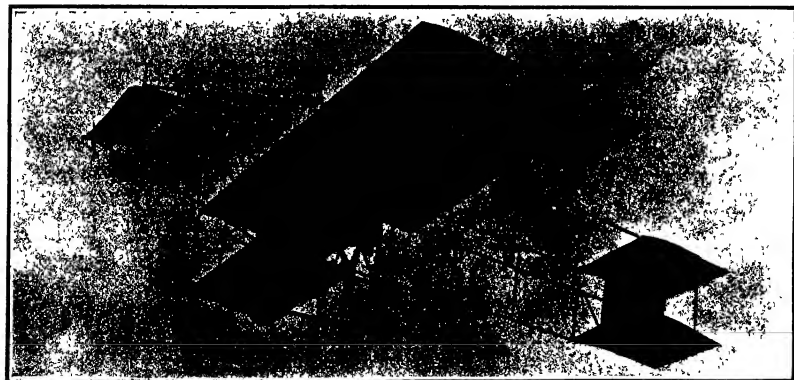


The Bleriot monoplane in flight as seen from a balloon.

These two views of the Bleriot monoplane give a good idea of its equally ideal like appearance when viewed from above or below. Paulhan flew this machine without difficulty, but his less-practiced assistants met with accidents and broke both machines.



Making a turn.



Paulhan making his record-breaking high-flight in the Farman biplane. He reached an official height of 4,165 feet.  
Correction: Made by Deacy and Knabenhus.  
This machine is the most approved type of biplane produced abroad. A single vertical rudder is now fitted between the surfaces of the tail in place of the twin rudders used heretofore. The biplane's wing tips for stability are set into the rear edge of the plane. The wings are mounted where you can see them running on the ground and alighting. One blade of the propeller can be seen below the revolving-cylinder motor at the rear.

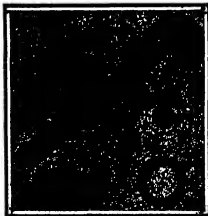
ACROBATS AND HURRICANES AT AMERICA'S FIRST AVIATION MEET AT LOS ANGELES, CAL.





## TOOL FOR CUTTING STAY BOLTS.

Stay bolts in locomotive boilers usually break near the inner side of the outside sheet and show. When the broken bolt is in position behind the frame of the locomotive it is necessary to drill the bolt on the exterior and drop it out of the way, after which a hole is bored



## TOOL FOR CUTTING STAY BOLTS.

through the stich in the outside sheet and the part of the bolt remaining is cut out with a round nose chisel. This is difficult to do, and it sometimes happens that the sheet is grooved in the operation, and trouble is caused thereby. With a view to overcoming this difficulty the tool illustrated in the accompanying engraving has been invented. It consists of a cutting member arranged to move in a sheath which can be fitted into the hole drilled in the bolt and serves as a guide for the cutter which is then operated to cut out the bolt. The body of the tool, which is of hexagonal form, is indicated at *A*. Projecting from the body *A* is a blade *B* formed with a head *C* at its lower edge. The sheath above referred to is indicated at *D* and is formed with a central bore to fit the head *C* and a slot to receive the flat portion of the blade as indicated in Fig. 2. The sheath *D* is reduced at *E* to form a centering guide. The bolt to be removed is first drilled out, as indicated in Figs. 3 and 4, to the diameter of the part *F* of the sheath. The portion *E* is then fitted into the bore, after which the cutting tool is operated to drive the end *F* of the blade into the bolt and cut it out as indicated in Fig. 1. After the bolt has been cut at three or four points it may easily be knocked out. Mr. William Smith of Pueblo, Wis., has secured a patent on this new cutting tool.

## WILKINSON CENTRIFUGAL FORCE PRACTICALLY

A Danish engineer, resident in New York City, Dr. Albert C. Albion, has endeavored to turn to practical use the enormous centrifugal force generated by a rotating body. His invention is at present embodied in an actually constructed and operative air compressor, with what success we leave our readers to judge from the accompanying illustration and the following brief description.

In each of two parallel guide frames a block is mounted to reciprocate. Each block is connected with the piston rods of a duplex compressor. Through the blocks an axle runs to the end of which is attached a weight-carrying arm. When the arms are thrown forward to one side or the other, each block moves back and forth, because the centrifugal forces produced at the weighted end of the arms is endeavoring to carry the weight off at a tangent to the circle from

its own center. But the center of each circle is the axle in the respective block. Hence the blocks move outward in their guide frames as the arms are thrown out. The single bearings, center, arm, weight are all therefore constantly changing position so long as the arm is being turned fast enough. Each centrifugal arm in its slight does not describe a circle, but rather an ellipse and curve due to the shifting of the block.

The two guide frames, as has been stated, are placed parallel to each other, each having a block, arm, weight, etc. The blocks are held in opposite positions so the arms will balance each other and so that the two blocks will always reciprocate in opposite directions.

The means employed to hold the centrifugal arms in position, and yet allow them to follow their respective "paths," consists of a shaft between the guide frames with two crank arms, each of which has a pin extending into a slot cut in each arm. The crank shaft is driven by a small motor. As the cranks turn, the centrifugal arms are turned by the pins which project in the arm-slots. The greater the speed of the crank, the greater the power of the centrifugal arms. Because there is no connection between the centrifugal arms and the cranks, the reciprocating action of the blocks is caused entirely by centrifugal force.

It is a curious though easily comprehensible fact the amount of centrifugal force developed was so great in the machine illustrated that it was necessary to cut away part of the material of each arm and to reduce the weight so that the pistons would not hammer against the cylinder heads.

## BRACE FOR BRICK KILNS.

During the process of baking bricks the kilns expand and contract, and if the sides are not braced after they have contracted they are apt to tumble over if the kilns should expand again. Hitherto it has been the custom to brace the sides of a kiln with timbers and wedges which work involves considerable



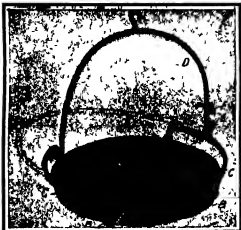
## BRACE FOR BRICK KILNS.

danger to the workmen while adjusting the wedges in order to remove this danger an inventor has recently devised the brace illustrated in the accompanying engraving. It consists of a bar *A* formed with teeth along its upper edge. One end of the bar is provided with a pair of studs adapted to engage a curved slot *B* in a supporting member *C*. The base of the supporting member is made broad so as to provide a large bearing surface. The bar *A* enters a recess in the supporting member and is cut away at *D* so that when the supporting member is pressed against the wall of the kiln the upper edge of the base will dig into the wall, as shown in one of the illustrations. The teeth on the bar *A* are adapted to be engaged by a pawl *E* which is fulcrumed in a member *F* that is supported on a timber disposed along the side of the kiln. The member *F* is held in place by teeth *G* which dig into the wood. The pawl *E* is provided with a thumb piece *H* by which it may be lifted out of engagement with the ratchet teeth in the bar. In using this brace the workman thrusts the supporting member *C* against the side of the kiln and places the member *F* in position on the timber. Then pressing against the kiln with his foot he takes up the slack between the two members *C* and *F*, by the engagement of the pawl *E* with the ratchet teeth on

the bar *A*. Mr. Anatole Perusse (care of J. McLean, 245 East Strand, Rondout, N. Y.) has just received a patent on this improved brace for brick kilns.

## BUTCHER SCALE PAN.

It is customary for butchers to weigh meat in large scale pans that are usually provided with a rigid ball which is also of large dimensions, and the fact that the ball is rigidly attached to the pan makes it inconvenient to stow away the pan when it is not in use. The accompanying engraving illustrates an improved form of butcher's scale pan in which the ball is so mounted that it may be folded down against the pan when it is

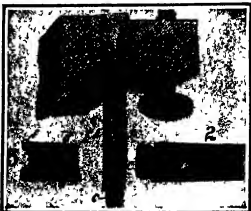


## BUTCHER SCALE PAN WITH FOLDING BALL.

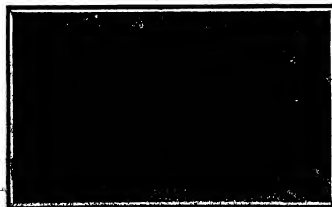
not in use, but whenever desired may be locked rigidly in an upright position. The ball is not directly connected with the pan, but to a pair of rails which serve to distribute the strain. In our illustration we have lettered the pan proper *A*. Hinged to the pan at the bottom are a pair of diametrically disposed straps *B* which cross each other at right angles and are bent up at the ends against the sides of the pan. The two rails *C* which are curved to conform approximately to the shape of the pan are secured to the ends of the bars *B*. Hinged to these rails is the ball *D* which is provided with the usual hook for attaching it to the scales. One of the rails *C* is formed with an outwardly projecting flange *E* in which is a square aperture adapted to receive a finger *F* that is free to slide on the ball *D*. When the finger *F* is fitted into this aperture the ball is held rigidly in upright position. On lifting up the finger *F* the ball is released and may be folded to the position indicated by dotted lines in the engraving. Mr. Jacob Feldman of 70 Carlton Avenue, Brooklyn, N. Y., has recently secured a patent on this improved scale pan.

## DOOR BRACKLES

A very convenient device for securely locking doors has recently been invented which should be of particular value to traveling men who often find it necessary to occupy a bedroom not fitted with an efficient lock. The locking device may readily be applied to any door without marring it in the least. As shown in our illustration, it consists of two plates. The larger plate *A* is provided with teeth which are placed against the jamb of the door and when the door is closed on the plate it forces these teeth into the wood. The opposite end of the plate *A* is turned back upon itself to form a bearing *B* the purpose of which will presently be explained. A square opening *C* is cut through the body of the plate *A* and adjacent to this opening a rim or eccentrically mounted disk *D* is provided. The second plate, as shown in Fig. 3, is formed with bearings *E* adapted to fit at opposite sides of the bearing *B* and receive a screw that passes through the bearings of both plates, being threaded into one of the bearings *E*. The smaller plate is also provided with a lug *G* which projects through the open



## DOOR BRACKLES FOR SECURING DOORS.



## CENTRIFUGAL MACHINE

























# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

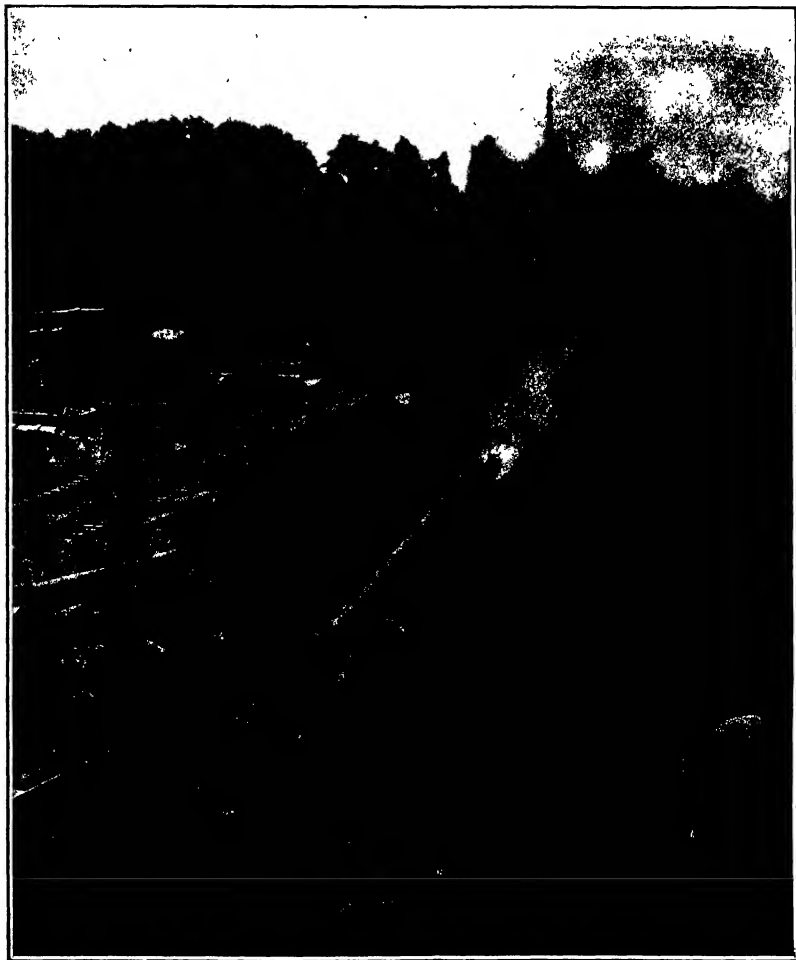
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A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS

Vol. CII., No. 6,  
Established 1845.

NEW YORK, FEBRUARY 5, 1910

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\$5.00 A YEAR.]



Discharge of an 8-inch navy rifle at Indian Head Naval Proving Ground.

WHAT SMOKELESS POWDER HAS MADE POSSIBLE.—I.—[See page 181.]





# A NEW STORAGE BATTERY STREET CAR

ANOTHER EDISON INVENTION.

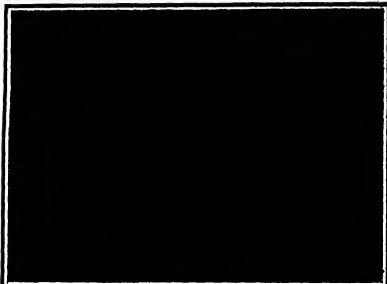
The announcement was made about nine years ago that Thomas A. Edison would soon place on the market a storage battery that would be much lighter and of greater capacity than the usual battery and provided with positive and negative elements that would not deteriorate because in place of an acid an alkali would be used for the electrolyte. Much was promised

showed no serious effect when rapidly discharged, and no damage resulted from overcharging. Shortly after the batteries were placed on the market it was found that the graphite became oxidized and interfered with the output. After considerable research it was discovered that chemically pure nickel could be substituted for the graphite and would not become oxidized in use

one. They had to be about the size of a lead pellet, namely, quarter of an inch in diameter and five inches long, with the sides finely perforated. A machine was eventually built which made the tubes out of perforated nickel ribbon. The ribbon was wound spirally with the edge of the coils interlocked and fastened together during the coiling process. A vast



The car weighs but five tons complete and its construction represents a radical departure from common practice



Interior of the car with the seats raised to show the batteries placed in the steel girders.

## A NEW STORAGE BATTERY STREET CAR.

for this battery, and a year or two later it appeared. The positive element consisted of nickel oxide interspersed with layers of graphite and packed in perforated nickel tubes, while the negative element consisted of iron oxide and the electrolyte was potassium hydrate. Both elements were supported in nickelled steel grids. The battery weighed about half that of the usual storage battery of the same capacity. It

but soon another difficulty developed. The nickel was packed in tubes of square cross section and these tubes would buckle or bulge outward, permitting the powdered nickel oxide to filter down over the pure nickel layers and insulate them. Then it was determined that a round tube would have to be used which would withstand the pressure of the nickel oxide. The problem of producing such tubes economically was a seri-

ous amount of money was spent in solving this one problem of the battery.

Shortly after the batteries were first put on the market they were withdrawn on account of the defects above enumerated, and about two years ago when the battery was finally completed in its present form a large number were sent out to be tested on auto-

(Continued on page 124.)

# ARTIFICIAL PRODUCTION OF THE VOICE

BY JACQUES BOYER

Dr. Marage has succeeded in demonstrating, by numerous experiments, that the voice results from an intermittent vibration of the larynx and the air with it is reinforced by the resonance of the mouth and other cavities situated above the larynx. In a recent communication to the Paris Academy of Sciences, Dr. Marage supplements his demonstration by proving that the larynx alone suffices for the production of these vibrations.

In the first of these later experiments, performed on a living person Marage succeeded in supplying the action of the vocal cavity by filling the mouth with "steel," a substance which is used by dentists for obtaining impressions of the mouth. The steel which filled the mouth was traversed by a rigid tube which connected the larynx with the external atmosphere. Although the resonant cavity of the mouth was thus suppressed, the five laryngeal vowel sounds OO, O, Ah, Ay, and Ee, were enunciated distinctly by the larynx alone.

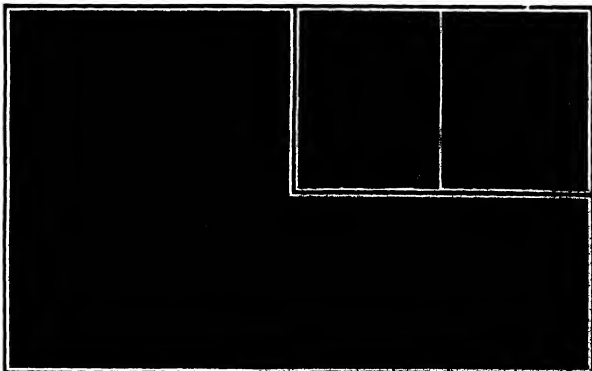
The investigation was continued by endeavoring to produce vocal sounds

from a larynx detached from the body. Muller had already experimented with the dead and isolated larynx, but the sounds which he obtained were quite different from those of the living larynx, and he stretched the vocal cords by applying forces much greater than the muscles of the larynx can exert. These forces, which in some cases exceeded a weight of 24 pounds, would certainly have torn out the ary-

noid cartilages of a living human larynx. Hence the conditions of Muller's experiments were abnormal.

Marage employed, in his experiments, the larynx of the dog. In order to spare the animal useless suffering, morphine was first administered hypodermically and, three hours later, the dog was put under the influence of chloroform, and the larynx, with five or six rings of the trachea, was excised. A rubber

tube of the diameter of the trachea was then connected with the larynx by means of a short tube of thin glass, so that a current of air could be forced through the excised larynx. The pressure of the air was measured with a very sensitive metallic manometer graduated in millimeters of water pressure. The compressed air was stored in a rubber bag similar to those which are employed for inhalations of oxygen, and was kept at the temperature of 32.5 deg. F. The muscles of the larynx were stimulated by the action of a small induction coil, which was connected by a storage battery and the sounds produced were



ARTIFICIAL PRODUCTION OF THE VOICE.

The left hand and right hand small engravings illustrate, respectively, the force exerted by the larynx in emitting a deep and a high note.

# WHAT SMOKELESS POWDER HAS MADE POSSIBLE.—I.

BY ROBERT G. SKERRETT

Except for saluting purposes, where smoke making is a factor in the ceremony, smokeless powder has supplanted the older propellants.

Our biggest battleships could not be given their present powerful armaments had not smokeless powder made it possible to add to the destructive force of our guns while calling for much less weight per unit of energy than formerly.

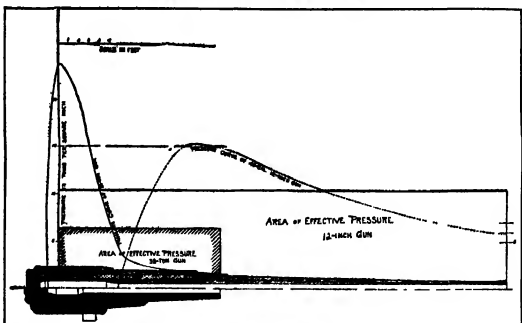
Smokeless powder was first generally used in the French navy at the time of the development of rapid fire guns to repel the swift torpedo boat. The use of smoky gun powder in those weapons would have hampered the defensive vessel in a cloud and have given a greater chance of success for the torpedo boat. Thus, a military necessity demanded the change. Once developed, however, smokeless powder became the stepping stone to a revolution in ordnance engineering. This was due in the main to the difference between the physical actions of the old and the new propellants.

Black gun powder has a very dignified antiquity. It is a mechanical mixture of saltpeter, charcoal, and sulphur. Smokeless powder, on the other hand, is a chemical combination in which the atoms bear a different and a far more intimate relation to one another. Common gun powder is a violent explosive and generating its gases with great suddenness. Its grains, however, when burned in a confined space are only imperfectly consumed, and large volumes of smoke are generated. When used in guns the products of this combustion give about 40 per cent of propelling gases. These propulsive gases have the double burden of moving the shell and this inert mass of smoke and unburned grains.

Prior to our adoption of smokeless powder, the charge was about half the weight of the projectile—double the quantity of smokeless powder required to give the same ballistic results. Black powder exerts a very great and disproportionate stress upon the breech of the gun. Thence toward the muzzle, the pressure drops suddenly—especially if the grains be small and the mass thus easily inflated. Our diagram shows graphically the quickness with which the highest pressures are developed and the rapid way in

middle of these units as that as the consuming flame reduced the outer surface the burning area of the hole was increased, maintaining thus a relative balance of ignited surface and giving a more regular and gradual

dealing with the briefest fractions of a second of time, but measurable intervals that mean everything to the ordnance engineer. Higher velocities and better ballistics followed. But



generation of gas. For a time, this answered. But the gun grew, and the exposed surfaces of the greater powder charge required offered too large an initial burning area, and dangerously high and sudden pressures were produced at the breech of the weapon.

There was actually more smoke than before, the bores of the guns were quickly fouled and there still remained a wasteful percentage of unburned grains. Such was the state of the art in this country when we went to war with Spain.



Weight of gun, 35 tons; Weight of shell, 100 pounds; Powder charge, 395 pounds; Muzzle velocity, 2,500 feet per second; Muzzle energy, 25,000 foot tons.  
THE NEW 12-INCH, 45-CALIBER GUN NOW VESSELS ARE BUYING FOR THE NAVY.

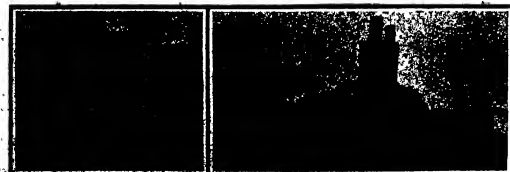
which they fall—the average propulsive force being but a low percentage of the maximum power evolved. It is this average pressure that sends the shot on its destructive errand, and the aim of the ordnance engineer is to have this reasonably high while lowering the crest of the curve of maximum energy.

The first remedy tried was in the form of larger grains, so that, for a given weight of charge, the superficial area at once exposed to the flame should be reduced—the powder instead of going off with a single flash burned more slowly, and the propelling force was better distributed along the bore of the gun. This method led to the making of prismatic grains up to an inch and a half in diameter—regularly and carefully formed. Next, a hole was bored through the

bore of the gun, a big percentage of the grain was blown out of the gun unconsumed. Advance for a time was blocked until the powder makers evolved a "slow-burning" propellant by changing the proportions of some of the ingredients. The purpose of sulphur is to lower the ignition temperature of the powder, and by lessening this element inflammation was momentarily retarded. By increasing the charcoal a greater percentage of moisture was added, and that served as a slowing-up agent in the general combustion of the mixture. The powder thus developed was called "vicious" because of its color—the consequence of the unburned charcoal used. In this country, we later called it "brown prismatic." The terms "quietly" or "slow burning" are merely relative. In other cases we are

Smokeless powder has quite reversed the lack of the ordnance engineer. His aim now is to provide an explosive which can be made to suit the gun rather than to fashion the weapon to meet the violent vagaries of the older propellants. Our present smokeless powder generates a relatively low, regular, and progressive pressure from the instant of ignition up to the time the shot leaves the muzzle of the gun with its usual muzzle velocity. The curve of our big 12-inch rifle shows how much nearer the powder makers have come to solving the problem, but much patient experimenting has yet to be done before the ideal is measurably approached.

The operative cycle of a shot moving along the bore of a gun is exactly opposite to that of a train of cars gaining full speed from a standstill. In the latter case, the engineer knows that he would endanger his car plunges—even if he did no other damage—if he opened wide the throttle at the instant of starting. So he begins by just acquiring headway and then gradually increases the motive energy until the train has reached full speed—a matter of quite several minutes for a fast train and during a distance of a mile or two. The ordnance engineer, on the other hand, can give to his projectile only a flying start by suddenly applying a great and violent pressure, and enough of this propulsive force must follow the shot to the muzzle in order to give the desired maximum velocity. This must be accomplished within a period of not more than one-hundredth of a second of time and in our biggest guns, while the shot travels a distance of not more than fifty feet. A few degrees will enable us to realize better the task set the ordnance engineer and



HEAVY SMOKELESS CHARGE OF SMOKELESS POWDER. SMOKELESS POWDER OF TALLER PILES AND NEEDS TO GOIT TO THE MOUTH OF THE GUN. THE NEW 12-INCH, 45-CALIBER GUN OF NAVAL GUNS.





## CLEARING SNOW FROM RAILWAY TRACKS IN CANADA.

BY FRANK C. PERKINS.

The accompanying illustrations show the construction and operation of a novel cylinder snow plow designed and constructed in the Province of Ontario. When the plow of this remarkable machine is forced into a drift or cut, the snow is lifted by the shovel, which is inclined upward and moving the expeller chamber, the snow sliding along until it comes in contact with the expellers the blades of which revolve at a high speed in an upward direction. Engaging the snow the blades throw it upward and outward at a great velocity, delivering it to a distance of 50 or 60 feet on each side of the plow and making a clear cut, 11 feet in width and at a speed of 8 to 8 miles per hour in a cut 10 feet deep. The snow is elevated and thrown at so great a distance from the track the possibility of the smallest quantity ever getting into the cut again is provided. The snow does not enter the expeller chambers, and it is stated that the maximum velocity of the expeller blades at the periphery is 5,654 feet.

The accompanying illustrations are front and side views of this remarkable cylinder snow plow. In one view the snow expellers are shown in operation, in another a cut 12 feet deep is illustrated. The reader will doubtless note the impression which wedges and apron leave on the snow. The thin end projects only 20 inches ahead of the expeller. Other illustrations show the cleared track in a 100 foot cut, and the machinery within the plow car, including the boiler steam pipes and engine. The expellers are directly connected with the engine shaft by means of two steel chain belts.

It is stated that each of the steel chain belts driven by the steam engine of this plow is capable of driving the expellers at a moderate speed alone, so that should one belt be disabled the plow would still be able to work at a somewhat lower rate of speed.

The plow body is of steel construction throughout, the box portions having the sides covered with wood like a box car. The roof is of similar construction, which is fire and water proof. A door is provided on each side in the middle of the car, the back end being left open for convenience in stoking the boiler. A lookout is built at the front end of the car from which point the engineers can be signalled to.

The front end of the car, entirely of steel, has three chambers, the two side ones being circular, open at the front and one side, in which the expellers revolve. These are nine feet in diameter and three feet six inches wide. Each expeller consists of a cast iron hub upon which are formed four spiral flanges, having a pitch of about fourteen feet. Riveted to these flanges are four half inch steel plates or blades twenty-two inches wide, comprising a true helix upon the hub. The expellers are mounted upon each end of the shaft and overlying the pedestals the shaft extending into the circular chambers. On the middle of the shaft, which is eight inches in diameter, is keyed the sprocket wheel, which is connected with a similar wheel on the shaft of the engine by the steel chain. These four parts constitute the drive gear. The mid die chamber opens in the interior of the car. On the front is constructed the nose of the plow, consisting of steel plates projecting forward to the end of the apron or shovel. It may be stated that the apron or

shovel is attached to the bottom framing, the side plates, the interior web plates, and the expeller chambers, by steel angles and plates. This apron extends forward five feet beyond the center of the expellers. The nose and shovel, being firmly riveted together, present a rigid construction to engage the snow.

This powerful cylindrical snow plow has engines specially constructed. The cylinders are sixteen inches diameter with eighteen inch strokes and work under a steam pressure of 150 pounds per square inch, the maximum speed being two hundred revolutions per minute. They are capable of developing 750 H. P. and are placed as near as possible to the expellers

with a solution of potash waterglass. Sometimes a repetition of this process will be necessary to thoroughly fill all the pores of the stone. It is enough if the stone is saturated to a depth of about 1/4 inch. Whisk brush marks may be cleaned either by rubbing with a piece of the same stone, or by rubbing the stone, or by brushing with steel brushes. Should the solution not impregnate the stone quick enough it must be diluted with more water. The solution should be entirely absorbed by the stone in about one minute. Whatever is left over on the surface after this time should be wiped away with a rag, as the crystals formed by the evaporation of the water would make a rubbing and cleaning of the stone necessary. A separate brush should be used for each solution, so that the reaction should begin in the pores of the stone. For larger surfaces steamers or sprayers may be used successfully.

Through these processes any soft limestones or sandstones may be made more compact and hard. Their porosity and imperviousness will equal that of the hardest stone. After treatment they may be polished and cut. The great advantage of the soft stone—cheaper of quarrying and cutting—remain, and they can receive afterward all the prominent qualities of the harder stones.

Mortar and concrete may also be hardened and compacted by these processes, so that they may be used with greater success in works calling for water-tightness, as water works, tanks, street pavements, sidewalks, artificial stone, cement blocks, etc.

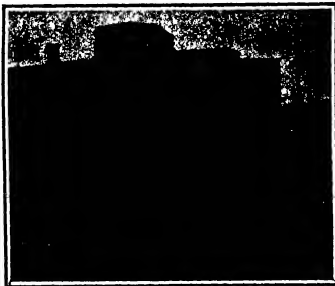
Monuments can also be protected by these processes from the influence of the weather.

## Process of Removing Hair from Hides.

An article in the *Leider technique Rundschau* mentions, without describing in detail, a new process for the removal of hair from hides, in which the agents commonly employed for this purpose (lime, sodium sulphide, etc.) are replaced by a suitable gas, which effects the removal of the hair in from two to eight hours. The process is said to be especially valuable for the preparation of colored leather and the leather in general, as the product is of very uniform grain and free from the spots which are often produced by lime and sodium sulphide. The leather is also much closer, tougher, stronger, and more flexible than leather made by the usual methods. Hides treated by the new process may be tanned with bark, extract, or chrome alum. The inventor, whose address may be obtained from the journal quoted, will furnish detailed information to persons interested.

## The Coming Aeronautics Show at Boston.

The first Aeronautics Show to be held in the United States without connection with any other exhibition, will open in Mechanics Building, Boston, Mass., on February 16th, and set on the first, as announced in our last issue. This show will remain open one week. The most far-fetched aeroplanes have already been secured, and the exhibition promises to be a representative one as far as the heavier-than-air machines are concerned. The manager can be addressed at 5 Park Square, Boston, by any experimenters having machines to exhibit.



A view showing an expeller.

to shorten the drive chain. The engines exhaust into the bottom of the smoke box of the boiler through a suitable nozzle similar to locomotive practice, creating a strong blast.

## Hardening of Soft Stone.

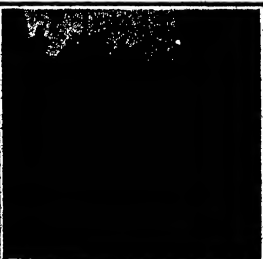
Mr. A. Kubelka of Bushovitz in Moravia has discovered a process by means of which the softest sandstone or limestone can be made hard. The process is the following: First, the surface of the stone must be thoroughly cleaned, so as to expose the pores. Any oil or grease spots must be removed with benzine or with the alcohol flame. Missing pieces must be filled up with cement mortar, using a 1:1 solution of waterglass for tempering. After the stone is thoroughly dry, it is saturated with a solution of potash or soda waterglass. In case of rain during or immediately after this operation, the stone must be again cleaned, dried, and saturated with the solution. Then follows an impregnation with molten chloride of calcium. After this impregnation rate will do no more harm, as on account of the reaction of the chloride of calcium upon the solution of waterglass, the pores of the stone will be filled with insoluble, hard silicate of lime, while the soluble silicate of lime will be decomposed and washed out by rain. Another method of Kubelka's is to saturate the stone first with a solution of sulphate of alumina, in water, and when dry



The plow in operation.



Front view of plow.



Plow withdrawn to show nature of cut.

CLEARING SNOW FROM RAILWAY TRACKS IN CANADA.



# BERNARD PALISSY, THE FAMOUS FRENCH POTTER, AND HIS WORKS

BY CHARLES A. BRASSLER

Bernard Palissy, whose statue by Barrias appropri-  
ately graces the court yard of the Ceramic Museum at  
Sèvres, is one of the most interesting figures in his-  
tory.

Born about 1510, near Agen, now in the department  
of Lot and Garonne, France, he was apprenticed early  
in life to a potter, and interested himself greatly in  
the technique of his calling, particularly in the possi-  
bilities of the various materials. He traveled in  
France and Germany, keeping this object in view and  
studying, for this purpose, geology and natural his-  
tory, supporting himself in the meantime by working  
as a land surveyor. About 1539, however, he settled  
at Salazat and here, while engaged in his calling, he  
began his systematic researches into the manufacture  
of pottery and the composition of enamels. It was  
here, he says in his book, "L'Art de la terre," "that  
without considering that I had no knowledge of argi-  
laceous earths, I began my researches into enamels,  
like one who gropes in the dark."

An enameled cup of falcon which came into his  
hands inspired him with the determination to discover  
a method of producing white enamel, and for nearly  
sixteen years, neglecting almost everything else, he  
devoted his time and attention to investigations and  
experiments in this direction. During this period,  
doubtless, he made the discoveries as to coloring,  
glazes, etc., that laid the foundation for his future  
success. His first attempts were unsuccessful, but  
he pursued his researches with unparalleled perse-  
verance and energy, sacrificing everything to what was  
then considered more or less of a chimera, and to  
what brought him no profit. He exhausted all his  
resources, and lacking fuel for the firing of his kilns,

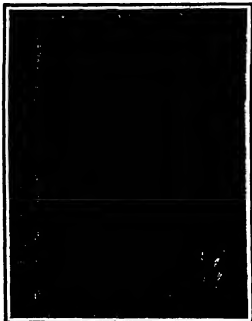
was reduced to the necessity of burning place by  
place his household furniture. Ridiculed by his neigh-

bors, bitterly reproached by his wife and tormented by  
the cries of his hungry children, he nevertheless per-  
sisted until finally, when reduced to the last desper-  
ate extremities, success rewarded his efforts.

Like most of the investigators and experimental  
ists of his time, Palissy had conducted his labors sys-  
tematically, and when he attained his object, he was  
able to repeat his work and obtain the same results.  
A few vessels, ornamented with life-like representa-  
tions of reptiles, insects and small animals and col-  
ored true to nature, were a revelation to the ceram-  
ists of those times and brought prices that soon en-  
abled him to forget the hardships through which he  
had fought his way to success. He continued and per-  
fected his researches and soon became famous, win-  
ning favor with the nobility and royalty, in the em-  
bellishment of whose palaces his genius was chiefly  
employed. This friendship stood him in good stead at  
the time of the massacre of St. Bartholomew, when  
the powerful protection of Queen Catherine and Anne  
de Montmorency, wife of the constable, saved him  
from the fate that befell so many of his fellow Hugue-  
nots, for Palissy had embraced the reformed faith.

A man of studious habits and keen intelligence,  
Palissy was among the earliest of French scientists  
to substitute for the fables and fanciful theories of  
so-called philosophers, hard facts, that were capable  
of practical demonstration. In 1575 he commenced  
the delivery of a course of lectures on natural history  
and physics, in which he gave a correct account of  
the origin of springs, the formation of stones and  
fossil shells, and advanced theories as to the best  
methods of purifying water, the use of marl as fer-

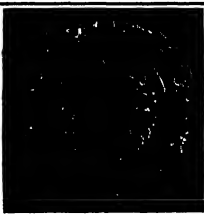
(Continued on page 127)



Portrait of Palissy. From an old French miniature  
on vellum at Clugny.



A cup and pitcher made by Bernard Palissy and now  
preserved in the Louvre.



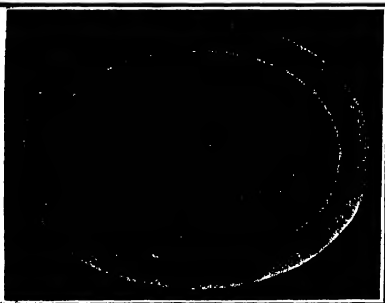
Palissy's reproduction in pottery of one  
of Briot's masterpieces. The Temperantia plate.



Pitcher belonging to the famous Temperantia basin  
and two candlesticks, all in the Louvre.



Large plate embellished with reptiles, fishes and shells made by  
Bernard Palissy.



"La Belle Jardinière," a famous plate by Palissy preserved in the  
Clugny Museum.

## THE HEAVENS IN FEBRUARY, 1910

BY ARTHUR MORRIS DODD, Ph.D.



THE advent of the astronomical discoveries of 1910 is one of the brightest comet reported from South Africa on the 17th of January. At that time it was but five degrees south of the sun, but it was so bright that it was visible in full daylight, to the unaided eye, and observations of its spectrum, made next day at the Lick Observatory, showed the sodium light on a continuous background, thus proving that the comet was very hot and self-luminous.

This doubtful means that it was then very near the sun, and strongly heated by its radiation. From the scanty information which is yet available it appears that the comet is moving rapidly northward and diminishing in brightness. Its orbit has been computed and ephemeris will be found on page 125 of this issue. It is probable that it will be visible for a few weeks in the evening sky, just after sunset, and almost directly above the point where the sun disappears. It is, however, quite possible that it may lose so much in brightness, as it retreats from the sun that it will not be very conspicuous. On the other hand, it may be a fine object, and the evening skies will be well worth watching especially about the beginning of February when moonlight no longer drowns out faint objects.

Halley's comet is still visible in the evening sky and is very slowly increasing in brightness, but it will probably be too faint for the naked eye, though perhaps visible in a field glass.

It will fortunately be easy to locate. Just north of the planet Saturn are three stars of the fourth magnitude, in an east and west line. On February 10th the comet will be about 50 min. of arc, or roughly, one and a half times the moon's diameter north of the middle one of these stars, and on the 17th it will be about the same distance north of the westernmost of the three. By following this line of motion it can easily be found at any time.

By the end of the month it will be pretty low in the west at sunset, and soon after it will vanish in the twilight, to reappear, much brighter, in the morning sky in April.

While the appearance of these comets is exciting so much interest, a notable advance has been made in the explanation of these phenomena. Observations of the spectra of the last two bright comets (Daniel's and Morhous's) showed that the light of the tail can consist almost entirely of bright bands, given out by some luminous gas. But at that time no gas was known which gave just these bands. Very recently Mr. Fowler of South Kensington, England, has found that a vacuum tube, containing small quantities of nitrogen, and of carbon compounds (excited electrically so as to glow), shows a spectrum exactly like that of the comet's tails, provided the pressure of the gas is made exceedingly small.

As the pressure and density of the gas in a comet's tail must be almost inconceivably less than in any vacuum which we can produce by mechanical means, this gives us a satisfactory explanation of the observations. The luminous particles though so thinly distributed through space, are molecules of familiar gases, and one of the mysteries which surround comets has been cleared away.

## THE HEAVENS

The splendid and familiar winter constellations are now seen in all their glory. The south and about half way up the sky is Orion. The very bright star below him to the left is Sirius. West of this, directly below Orion, are the small groups

of the Hare and the Dove. Far below the latter, on the southern horizon, those who live south of Virginia or Missouri can see a star of exceptional brightness. This is Canopus, the principal star of the great constellation Argos, and, next to Sirius, the brightest in the heavens. This star's brightness might make us anticipate that, like Sirius, it might be a near neighbor of ours in space, but repeated and careful observations show that this is not so. Its distance is too great to measure accurately, but it is at least ten times as far off as Sirius, and probably much farther from us. Canopus must therefore be really a most magnificent luminary, exceeding our sun at least a thousand fold in brightness.

To the left of Orion and Taurus are Canis Minor and Gemini, and right overhead is Auriga, with the bright star Capella. In the southeast there is nothing of much interest, but in the west we see two bright objects, one above the other, not marked on the map. These are the planets, Mars and Saturn, whose motion among the stars makes it impossible to put them in our permanent maps of the heavens. Mars is higher up than Saturn, and is redder in color.

In the northwest we see Andromeda and Cassiopeia, and above them Perseus. This is another of the constellations which bears no real resemblance to any-

between us and the sun and become a morning star. At the beginning of the month she is easily visible in the evening, setting more than an hour and a half later than the sun, and at its end she is similarly conspicuous in the morning sky.

During the middle of February she will be invisible to the naked eye, but as she passes almost 8 degrees north of the sun, she should be observable telescopically, in full daylight, as a thin crescent, all through this time.

Mars is evening star in Aries, remaining in sight till nearly midnight.

Jupiter is in Virgo, rising about 10 30 P. M. at the beginning of the month, and is 30 at its close.

Saturn is evening star in Pisces, setting about 10 P. M. in the middle of the month.

Uranus rises only about 1½ hours before the sun, and is unobservable.

Neptune is in Gemini, observable all the evening, but only with a good-sized telescope.

## THE MOON

Last quarter occurs at 8 A. M. on the 2nd, new moon at 8 P. M. on the 9th, first quarter at 10 P. M. on the 17th, and full moon at 8 P. M. on the 25th. The moon is nearest us on the 12th, and farthest on the 28th. She is in conjunction with Taurus and Mercury on the 7th, Venus on the 8th, Saturn on the 13th, Mars on the 15th, Neptune on the 20th, and Jupiter on the 27th. Princeton University Observatory.

## The Library of the Assyrian King, Sardanapalus.

During the interval of the past fifty years twenty thousand stone tablets, approximately, of the library of the Assyrian king, Sardanapalus, were found in the course of excavations among the ruins of Nineveh and taken to London.

The texts written on them, which are related to one another apparently, are now published in their original cuneiform script by the British Museum in serial collections. Various accounts of the whole work have therefore an opportunity for further investigation of the texts of their special provision, for every kind of text in cuneiform script presents its own particular difficulties to the translator and commentator. In the fourteenth collection, or volume of the work are assembled these tablets of the king's library which regard chiefly the objects of the three national king doms. Obviously many of these lists were prepared for purposes of medication.

For this reason a prominent physician, Baron Oefele, assisted by noted scholars in cuneiform Sumerian and Akkadian, began to examine this collection with a degree of skill that has become quite prolific. Apart from the many lists which mention minerals, the numerous lists of animals are mostly of a uniform kind, and the names of animals are arranged in two columns, the same names being given in the first column in Sumerian and in the second column in Akkadian. That is, in Babylonian. Still far more interesting than the medical lists are the botanical lists, of which there is a great number, and which give the most various directions to acquaint the aspiring physician with the effect and use of hundreds of medicinal plants. This list may seem to show that among the old Babylonians the knowledge of the natural sciences was already far greater than among their successors, the Greeks and Romans, whose names of animals and plants is so manifestly have been derived partly from the Babylonian language.

The shortest track for steamers from Peking, Japan, Yokohama, Shanghai, and Hongkong passes by the proximity to San Lucas Bay, near Cape San Lucas, at the southern end of Lower California, and to the ports of Mazatlan and Acapulco on the mainland of Mexico. Perhaps Mazatlan should be regarded as the closest port.

At 2 1/2 o'clock: Jan. 1  
At 1 1/2 o'clock: Jan. 10  
At 10 o'clock: Jan. 15

At 2 o'clock: Feb. 5  
At 1 1/2 o'clock: Feb. 10  
At 10 o'clock: Feb. 15

At 1 1/2 o'clock: January 15

## NIGHT SKY: JANUARY AND FEBRUARY

thing in particular, but with the aid of the drawing in our initial it is possible to see how the ancients found here the figure of the hero carrying the head of the Gorgon Medusa, which is marked by the bright star Alcyon.

The bright spot in the Milky Way, between Perseus and Cassiopeia, is a splendid star cluster, showing well in the small telescope.

To see how the northern constellations appear in the sky, we must turn our map upside down, so that the words "Northern Horizon" are at the bottom. It will then appear that Capheus is below the Pole, on the left. The Little Bear hangs by its tail from the Polestar. The Dragon is below, with his head out of sight and only his tail showing. The Great Bear is climbing up the heavens to the eastward, and is already high. In the east is Leo, pretty well up, and above is Cancer, with the star cluster Praesepe. Farther to the right is Hydra—an immense constellation, whose head is already high while its tail will continue to drag itself into sight for three hours longer.

## THE PLANETS

Mercury is morning star throughout the month, but is unfavorably placed south of the sun. It may be seen about the 20th, when he rises about 5-40 A. M. Venus is evening star until the 12th, when she passes

# THE HEADMAN'S WORKSHOP

## RECTOR OF ECONOMIZING GAS.

BY A. J. ZABAN.

How to economize the consumption of gas for illuminating and heating purposes is a question of considerable importance today. The price charged for coal gas at the present time in many towns and cities is so high as to prevent its use for cooking purposes. Only by exercising the utmost economy in using only just enough to cook the small quantity of food required does the use of gas for cooking become advantageous under such conditions.



SECTION OF THE GAS ECONOMIZING APPARATUS.

Welsbach and kindred lamps it is the heat of the burning gas that renders the mantle brilliantly incandescent. Moreover the lighting qualities of the gas are greatly improved as well. The following apparatus, which was first made by the writer in 1872, has been put to the test in hundreds of cases and has proved its efficiency in every instance. Any man who is handy in the use of metal working tools can make one and fit it to suit his gas supply by attaching it to the supply pipe after the gas has passed the meter, the gas then belongs to the consumer. It being the property of the gas company pay before it passes the meter.

The apparatus here described is suitable for a ten light meter, with all the fittings for lighting, heating and cooking. It consists of a closed tin cylinder *A* six inches in diameter and seven inches high without the central top. Within this vessel is placed another cylinder made of galvanized wire netting, with a half inch more the diameter being four inches and height seven inches. This wire cylinder is placed in the tin can, having a one-inch space all round. Within this space clean, white cotton waste is packed. A tin cylinder *C* six and a half inches long and three and one-half inches diameter is soldered all round to the cone top of the cylinder *A* and is provided with a perforated bottom to allow the hydrocarbon with which the economizer is to be charged to run through and saturate the cotton waste *D*. The cylinder *C* acts as a spreader, causing the gas which enters by way of pipe *B* to contact in a thin layer with the cotton waste until through pipe *F*. The apparatus is charged with benzene, gasoline, or a similar volatile hydrocarbon capable of being taken up by the nonilluminating carbon constituents of coal gas, such as hydrogen, marsh gas or carbolic oxide. As *G* is a suitable brass stop-rock, which enables one to turn off the gas when charging



A 100-LUMEN AND A 10-LUMEN GAS ECONOMIZER.

the apparatus with gasoline. The brass cap at *B* must have a disk of pliable leather fitted in the interior so that it becomes perfectly gas-tight when screwed down. It is necessary to make a hole in the supply pipe *H* at *B* so that in case the gasoline should cover the bottom of the inlet pipe this would prevent the dripping of the light gas to bubbling of the gas through the liquid.

The charging of the apparatus must be carried out in daylight, and it should be fitted near a window where daylight is admitted, for a lighted match, candle or lamp must not be used. With these simple precautions the apparatus is perfectly safe. The cone top must be perfectly soldered where the tin cylinder meets, and all the brass connections attached to the inlet and outlet pipes must also be perfectly soldered. India rubber piping or connectors must not be used soldered connections, metal piping and screened brass connectors alone must be used. When the economizer is fitted and charged with about three pints of gasoline it will be found that the intensity of light from an ordinary naked burner will be vastly improved.

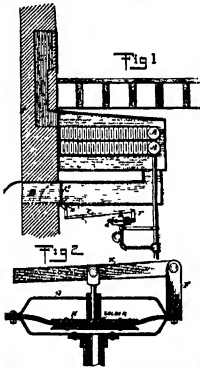
It has been found that half a gallon of benzene will take the place of 100 cubic feet for direct illumination in this apparatus.

The cotton waste in the economizer must be packed moderately tight. If packed too loose it will sink and give less surface for the gas to reach the gasifier. Be sure and mark the outer end of the inlet pipe *IN*. This will prevent any mistake when installing the device.

## REGULATOR FOR INDIRECT AND DIRECT-INDIRECT STEAM HEATING.

BY A. J. ZABAN.

Every indirect and direct-indirect steam heater should have some kind of a regulator so as to shut off the air supply when there is no heat in the radiator, otherwise, regularly at night when the steam pressure goes down and the air box remains open with the



cold wind blowing directly into it, it will soon cool off the house.

The accompanying illustrations show a very simple way to make such a regulator. Fig. 1 shows the general arrangement of an indirect heating radiator, and Fig. 2 shows in detail the regulator.

The radiator *A* is inclosed in a box in the usual way taking its air from the outside through the passage *B* and having a shutter or damper *C* mounted to turn in suitable bearings on a shaft. The latter has a small coil crank *D* secured to its outer end which through a link is connected to a lever *E*. The lever *E* is pivoted in suitable brackets *F* fastened to the regulator *G*. The regulator can be made of two small frying pans or skillets say about 5 inches in diameter. A part of the central rim is bent outward forming flanges for bolting the same together. The bending is done very easily. Place the skillet over the edge of an iron block, and with a flat piece of hammer strike the edge away about  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch all around. To the lower head, rivet a small floor flange, which will serve for connection with the steampipe from the boiler. In the center of the upper head a hole is made large enough to receive a half inch nipple. To the lever is fastened a short rod which passes down through this nipple to the diaphragm *H*.

The diaphragm is made of sheet rubber, say  $\frac{3}{16}$  inch thick with one or more layers of duck in it. To the top and bottom disks of iron with beveled edges  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch thick are riveted. To the upper disk is soldered a half inch nipple or piece of pipe, serving as a guide. The whole is now placed between the two heads of the regulator and bolted together very closely. To the lower head is fastened the usual siphon pipe to connect the steam from the boiler to the regulator. As the steam pressure rises it will force the diaphragm

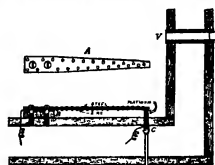
upward, thereby opening the shutter *C* in the air passage *B*, permitting the cold air to pass under and through the bank of radiators, thereby heating them there up through the radiator into the room and will keep it open until the steam pressure goes down. The weight of the arm *E* will then close the shutter preventing no more air to pass until again opened by the steam pressure. A weight may be attached to this lever, so as to close the shutter more effectually.

## THERMOSTATIC ALARM FOR HOUSE HEATERS.

BY A. J. ZABAN.

The accompanying diagram shows how a simple alarm for house heaters can be made.

The object of this alarm is to give warning when the furnace is overheat and needs attention, or when the fire is nearly out and needs more coal. A thermostatic bar  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inches by  $1\frac{1}{16}$  inch is made of copper



## THERMOSTATIC ALARM FOR HOUSE HEATERS.

and iron riveted together very closely and fastened at one end are brackets *A* which are secured in a suitable base *B*. The free end of the bar *A* moves between two contact points *D* made of ordinary screw-eyes. These are secured into points *C* made of  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch dowel and secured to the base *B*.

The whole is fastened in an inverted position over the furnace or other place where there is danger of over heating. After the contact points are adjusted to close the circuit at the proper temperature they are connected up to an electric bell and battery as indicated in the drawing.

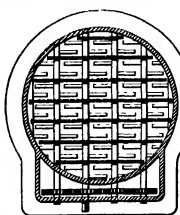
A switch is placed in the circuit at some convenient point. It will now be seen that when the thermostatic bar *A* moves to either side, according to the temperature and makes connections with contact points *D*, the bell *E* will ring. When the apparatus gives the necessary alarm the switch must be turned off until the trouble is remedied.

## ADAPTING A GRATE FOR SMALL COAL.

BY A. J. ZABAN.

The grates in the ordinary house-heating furnaces are regulated and made for the best and most suitable size of coal to be used in each particular case. That is to say, in a large house furnace where coarse coal is used, usually, a very coarse and open grate is provided but in a smaller furnace where smaller coal is to be used, a much closer grate is furnished.

In some localities where pea coal is much cheaper than egg stove or nut, it would perhaps be more economical to run the pea coal provided the grate would permit. As a rule, if the pea coal is used in these large furnaces it has not proved very successful on account of the coarse grate, unless a new one is put in more suitable for the smaller coal as the shaking of



GRATE ADAPTED FOR BURNING SMALL COAL.

the old grate will cause the whole fire to dump into the ash pit.

To overcome this the writer has tried several methods and has come to the conclusion that the best is that shown in the accompanying illustration.

The grate is an ordinary cooking range grate between every or every other finger (which will depend upon the kind of grate and also of the size of coal to

be used) is placed across the entire grate a piece of say 1/2-inch pipe or bar. These pipes or bars rest on the grate bars and are not affected by the rocking of the grate. As the ashes accumulate on top of these bars they have a tendency to keep them in place and will prevent them from moving or burning.

There should always be a layer of an inch or two of ashes on any grate. Care should be taken not to shake the grate too much, as a great deal of live coal will fall through and something will be burnt in the ash pit thereby wasting and destroying the grate bars.

The writer has used some old pipes and grate bars for a number of years and today they are as good as new. Some years ago, during the coal famine, a great deal of plumstone coal was burned with perfect success. It is but when starting a new fire to clean out the ash pit and if any live coals fall through they may be shovelled up on the fire again until enough ashes are formed to prevent them from falling through.

#### HOW TO BURN COAL ECONOMICALLY

The accompanying illustrations show how in a very simple way the gases in an ordinary furnace may be consumed and burned thereby giving off a more uniform heat and maintaining an even temperature throughout the house continuously night and day. It will effect a saving on the coal bin and produce more level bedsteads.

The fire in a stove or furnace is simply the result of a chemical union of the carbon properties of the fuel both solid and gaseous, with the oxygen of the air.

By the complete combustion of one pound of coal 14,000 heat units are given off, but by the incomplete combustion of one pound of coal, as burned in the great majority of domestic heaters, only about 4,000 to 5,000 heat units are produced and the balance of the heat passes away up the chimney a rich combustible gas that should have burned.

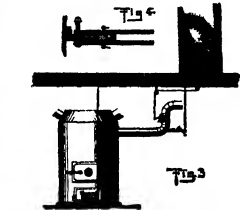
To obtain the highest efficiency from coal it must be burned with the least possible supply of air consistent with perfect combustion, as an excess of air carries the heat of the fuel into the chimney and a certain mixture of air from below the grate will cause an explosion in the smoke pipe blowing the fire door open and filling the cellar with soot and gas.

Nearly every furnace has large so-called "cool gas" which is due either to poor draft or a defective furnace, or an improper adjustment of the dampers. As the order is so self-evident, the difficulty is soon remedied. Every furnace, however, is constantly discharging more or less carbon monoxide gas which is perfectly odorless and is a very energetic poison, as the result of imperfect combustion.

Ordinarily the domestic use of coal consists on the gas, upon the dampers and drives it up the chimney and then proceeds to burn the coke, which is only about one-half of the heat value of the coal, besides it is not alone the heat that goes up the chimney, but the rich combustible gas that passes away unconsumed. This gas when burned produces a uniformly

hot flame. To keep this current of hot air rising, a "cold-air box" connects the lower part of the furnace with the outside air and is regulated with a damper. This cold-air box should always be kept open as much as possible and never entirely closed while there is fire in the furnace, as the furnace will become overheated and may be injured.

Fig. 1 shows how the common hot-air furnace may be adapted to burn the gas of the coal. A small pipe, say 1 inch or 1 1/2 inch is inserted through the upper part of the smoke pipe (as the gases here are the hottest), terminating in close proximity to the smoke collar just inside of the radiator of the stove. The fire in the furnace is fed with a suitable spreader, such as shown in detail in Fig. 3. The cross pipes have a number of 3/16-inch holes drilled in the lower side, or



RAID METHOD OF REGULATING THE DAMPERS.

facing downward. The outer end of the pipe is fitted with some kind of a damper to regulate the supply of air. As the cold air passes through this pipe it becomes heated and at delivery end it is of the same temperature as the gases, but as the specific gravity of this heated air is much greater than that of the gases in the furnace, it drops down and mixes with the gases, forming a combustible mixture which now burns with a blue flame, just as in an ordinary gas stove. If a small piece of mica is inserted into the fire door this burning may be observed. It is a very interesting phenomenon.

In order to make the system a success the fire pot must be in perfect condition, that is to say, in a hot air furnace there should be no consumption between the fire pot and the air chamber, no cracks and no loose joints. The fire door should be as airtight as possible. If a small piece of mica is inserted in the following manner: First, file and remove all rust at the edge of the door and the metallic surface exposed, then cut a narrow strip of asbestos and soak in salt water, after which place it around the door and it will adhere. Put a little oil on the door frame and close the door. The asbestos will then fill up any opening and make very hard on the door.

If everything below the grate were absolutely air tight no combustion would take place, but as all furnaces leak more or less the leakage is enough to support combustion in ordinary weather. In extremely cold weather, however, the slide in the ash pit door may be opened a little, so as to furnish a little more air.

A damper is attached to the smoke pipe above the air pipe, so that when open it will not cool off the air pipe.

A fire is built in the furnace the ordinary way, keep the air damper closed until a good fire is obtained, then put on some coal and keep the lower damper open for a few minutes, after which close all drafts and open the air damper, regulate the same according to the heat required, that is to say, more heat, more air. Through the before-mentioned mica window observe the results. All the gases in the furnace will, however, not burn, as some are bound to escape unconsumed.

There is more economy in running a large, slow fire all day long than a hot one at intervals. Therefore it is best to coal the fire twice a day, in the morning and at night, and regulate it so that the fire burns with an even temperature. It will keep the house at a uniform temperature night and day.

When the furnace has been cooled for the day or the night the dampers may be controlled from any room above by simply raising or lowering a lever connected with wires running over pulleys to the various dampers, thereby saving many a step. This is shown in Fig. 2, a sectional plan of the levers is shown in Fig. 4.

In ordinary weather the fire should only be shaken once a day, preferably in the morning, but in very mild weather twice a week will suffice. Only shakes until the first red coal comes down. In furnaces with very strong drafts shake but very little, as the layer of ashes on top of the grate will help check the draft. If the fire is very low stick a few pieces of kindling

wood into the fire. This will heat up the smoke pipe. The ash-pit door may also be opened until the fire is drawn up, then regulate as before described.

With this arrangement in good working order every particle of coal will be used to its best. The slide in the coal, of course, will not burn.

This applies to all three heating systems in domestic use, namely, hot air, hot water, and steam, as it only takes care of the furnace and the atmosphere.

In hot-air heating, in addition to regulating the fire, the cold-air box must be regulated. This box generally terminates outside the building under a porch. It has always a certain amount of clearance because of changes in the direction of the wind. Sometimes the wind will blow directly into it and cool off the house, but when the wind is in another direction it will smother the hot air out from the furnace into the atmosphere. To overcome this a shield is placed in front of the box, say 8 inches from the building, overlapping about 12 to 18 inches all around. Then it will be impossible for the wind to interfere with the regulation of the air, which is generally done in the collar with a damper or shutter.

The pipes in the collar leading to the registers should be kept clean, also the registers. Avoid putting any wire netting to catch articles dropped thereon, as it will catch more dirt than anything else, sometimes clogging up the meshes completely, forming an excellent breeding place for bacteria.

The water pipe should be connected with the water supply, controlled by a float valve. This insures an even water level in the furnace.

In steam heating plants the boiler and radiators should be large enough to heat the house at a temperature of 70 deg. in sea water with one pound of steam, as this will take a great deal less coal than when the boiler and radiators are too small, and require a steam pressure of 10 to 20 pounds.

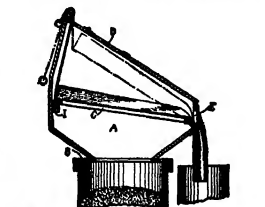
In houses where the draft is good one day and poor the next, despite favorable winds, the fault is with the chimney. It should be built higher. This is a great deal cheaper and better than to put an unsightly cap on it.

#### HOME-MADE AIR SYSTEM.

BY A. M. MURPHY.

A dustless ash after can be made at a very small expenditure of money by following the lines of the accompanying drawing. Make a box A shaped as shown about 2 feet high 2 feet long, and 10 inches high at its lowest part. The box should be of such a width that it is a square hole in a base board B. Make the base board square to fit over top of an ash can and cut a square hole in the base board of such a size as to be suitably within the diameter of ash can. Nail the base board to the bottom of the box.

Then make a frame C of 1 inch wide stock, 1 inch narrower than the inside width of box and 1 inch shorter than the inside length of the box. Bore a 1/2-inch hole in the center of one end of this frame and cover the frame with 1/2-inch mesh galvanized netting. Insert two strands of this frame with this board, about 6 inches high, tapering the two sides, as shown,



SECTIONAL VIEW OF THE HOME-MADE AIR SYSTEM.

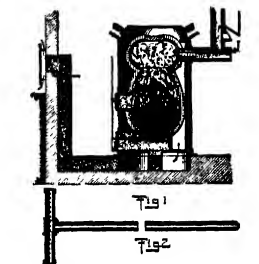
and leaving the discharge and open, which should be hinged to front end of box with two 3 by 1/2-inch hinges. Put a piece of rope through a hole in the upper end of the frame and fasten it on top so that it will not pull out.

The box is now ready for the top which has a hinged door D, as shown. On top of box place a pulley and run the rope through the hole in the top of the box and over the pulley wheel. The end of the rope may have a large ring attached to it as shown.

The arrangement will allow the string frame to be swung up and down, turning the frame every time it strikes the hook F fastened to rear of the box.

Over the opening in front of box fasten a bag-shaped cloth to guide the slanders to a suitable receptacle and prevent dust from rising.

This slide has shown a very cheap and does not require a special shoveling of sifted ashes.



ARRANGEMENT FOR BURNING THE GASES OF THE COAL.

higher temperature than the coal itself, which may burn at varying temperatures even so low as to produce but little heat.

The flue gases that form in the furnace are the result of an exothermic draft below the grate.

To accomplish the mixing of the hot gases and air the air must be heated to the same temperature.

The most common domestic heating furnace is the hot-air furnace. This is simply an improved stove enclosed in a sheet-iron or brick casing. The furnace heats the air within this enclosure to a high temperature and therefore rises to the rooms above through



















# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

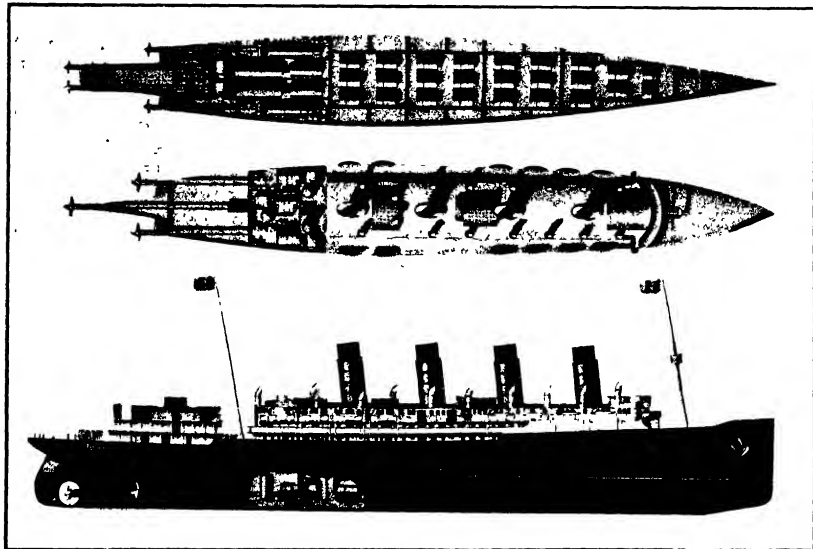
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A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS

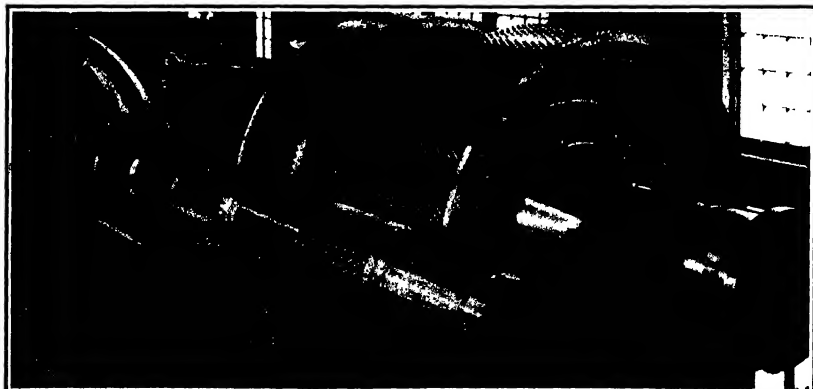
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The upper engraving shows the space occupied by the hulls and engines of the "Mauretania." The two lower engravings demonstrate the large saving in space resulting from the use of high-speed turbines, driving, through reduction gears, three slow-speed propellers. They would save 1,600 tons of coal and over \$3,200 on each transatlantic trip.



The pinion, direct-connected to the turbine, runs at 1,500 revolutions per minute. The spur wheel, direct-connected to the propeller, runs at 300 revolutions per minute. SPEED-REDUCTION GEAR—A WAY OUT OF THE MARINE TURBINE DILEMMA.—[See page 142.]





## A NOVEL AMERICAN MONOPLANE

The monoplane illustrated herewith is one of the most novel aeroplanes which has thus far been produced. It is the invention of Mr. A. L. Pittman who for some time past has been associated with Mr. Glenn H. Curtiss in the production of his aeroplanes.

This new monoplane while resembling the Curtiss biplane in some features is a distinct departure from the usual type of single surface machine such as produced abroad by Bleriot and the Avro and its company. Unlike the Bleriot machine, there is no square triangular body extending the length of the machine and carrying a pair of wings near its front end. In place of this there is a single plane mounted upon four vertical wood struts at its center and having a fixed horizontal tail 10 feet at the rear and a single surface horizontal rudder 14 feet in front. The vertical rudder is placed in front just above and at the center of the horizontal rudder. Both rudders are therefore always within the view of the aviator. They are controlled by a single wheel placed vertically in front of the aviator. This wheel also operates sliding seats on the under side of the monoplane at each end for the purpose of maintaining the transverse stability. The fact that all three controls are operated by a single wheel makes this machine the simplest to drive of any thus far produced.

The plane has a spread of 37 feet and a fore-and-aft width of 6 feet. The plane itself is but 5½ feet x 8 feet equivalent to an area of 144 square feet. The sliding wing tips are each 4½ feet by 1 foot from front to rear. The horizontal rudder is 6 x 1 feet in size and the vertical rudder 3 feet long by 2 feet high. The dimensions of the tail surface are 6 x 2 feet. The total weight of the machine the tanks being filled with 6 gallons of gasoline and 1 gallon of oil and the radius with 1½ gallons of water is 450



Copyright 1910 by A. L. Pittman

Rear view of monoplane, showing novel sliding wing tips

This view shows the fixed tail of the rear and the lower tail rudder with vertical rod below it. It is front of it a single plane.



Mr. Pittman at the control wheel of his monoplane

This view shows the fixed tail of the rear and the lower tail rudder with vertical rod below it. It is front of it a single plane.

THE FIRST AMERICAN MONOPLANE TO FLY

pounds. The weight carried on square feet is therefore slightly more than 3 pounds.

The four vertical posts forming the chassis terminate in forks of seamless steel tubing, each of which carries a 30-inch pneumatic-tired wheel. The posts are spaced apart by steel tubing braces and by wooden skids extending from the front to the rear. The front edge of the main plane is mounted upon these uprights 44 inches above the ground. The rear edge which is formed of steel tubing stretched over the ribs is 10½ inches lower than the front edge where it crosses the main vertical uprights. The ribs have a slight curvature of about 1 in 18 the number being 24, 10 ribs in the length of 8 feet. The center of pressure is located about 7½ inches back of the front edge of the plane. The ribs are laid upon two main spars running the entire length of the machine the foremost of which forms the front edge of the plane while the rear one is 10 inches in advance of the rear edge and rests in sheet steel sockets attached to the heavy main ribs that connect the central vertical uprights. At suitable distances from the center of the machine on these front and rear spars vertical struts are attached to them for the purpose of trussing the plane. The 25 horse power 4 cylinder 4-cylinder Curtiss water-cooled motor is mounted upon two laminated beams extending from a cross tube at the rear through the monoplane surface to the front edge. The rear of the motor is substantially braced by four diagonal tubes as can be seen in one of the photographs. The propeller especially designed by Mr. Pittman is 6 feet in diameter and gives 215 pounds thrust at 1,500 R. P. M. or 94 pounds to the horse power. The oil tank is seen just below the surface of the plane in the photograph just referred to. The oil is circulated on page 160.

## NEW OVERHEAD ELECTRICAL CONSTRUCTION ON THE N. H. R.R.

The New York and New Haven Railroad Company is so well satisfied with the operation of its electrical route from Stamford to New

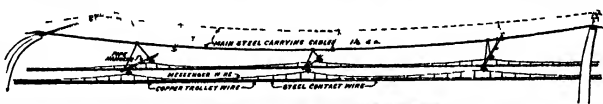
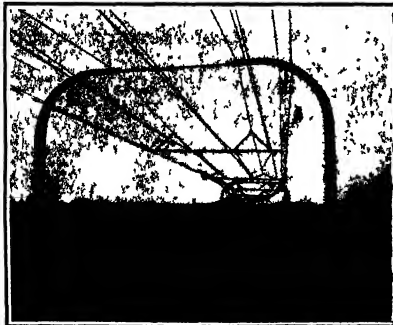


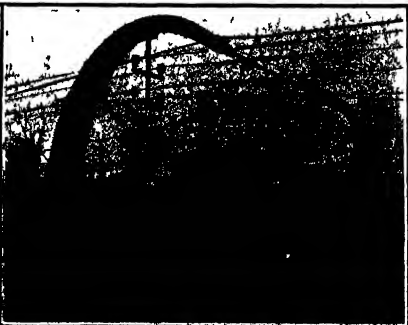
Diagram showing details of new overhead construction

York that it has decided to extend the electrification for another forty miles to New Haven. The company is also

(Continued on page 144)



General view of trestle showing light and pleasing appearance of the construction.



Near view of a pair of curved supporting columns showing a triangulated pipe hanger, suspended from the two 14-inch main carrying cables.

THE NEW OVERHEAD SYSTEM OF THE NEW HAVEN RAILROAD ELECTRIFICATION



## SMOKELESS POWDER—METHOD OF MANUFACTURE.— II.

BY ROBERT G. SKERRETT

In the issue of the *Scientific American* of February 12 it was shown how greatly the improvements in the power of naval guns are due to the introduction and development of smokeless powder. The present article is devoted to the description of its manufacture.

The base of our smokeless powder is cellulose—that wonderful and yet indescribable form of matter. Cotton is one type of pure cellulose.

In 1833 Braconnot discovered that starch dissolved in nitric acid and when cleaned in water became an intense explosive. A little later Pelouze obtained the same results by soaking cotton fabrics in that acid

cotton and to fashion it into a safe and practical propellant. We followed Pelouze but our powder has been the immediate offspring of that produced by the great Russian chemist Mendeleef.

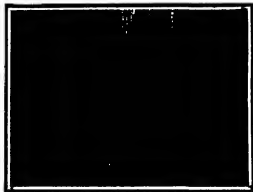
It seems paradoxical that we should seek for a safer and less violent propellant than common gunpowder by adopting for a base an explosive well known to be more vigorous and more unruly. The secret discovered by the chemists proved nitrocellulose to be amenable to the influence of detergent agents which subdue the suddenness of explosion while the form of the grains regulates in a remarkable way the rapidity with which the granules burn and generate the propelling gases. Smokeless powder can now be made in grains of such size and such form that the conditions imposed by each caliber of gun can be met and the muzzle velocity of the shot regulated with astonishing precision. Thus the task of the ordnance engineer is now quite opposite to that of former days. To day the gun is designed to meet certain requirements while the propellant is afterward made to suit the gun.

Now for the manner in which harmless cotton is transformed into a ballistic agent at the Naval Powder Factory Indian Head Md. No official secrets are betrayed because the value of the process lies in the close proportioning of the various ingredients combined with particular forms of grains. These secrets are the outcome of lessons learned after much experimenting in which the variation of a tiny fraction of an inch may either make or mar the product.

Cotton when steeped in nitric acid becomes soluble in a mixture of ether and alcohol if the percentage of nitration be less than 12.75 and is insoluble when the measure of acid is above this arbitrary dividing line. When below this percentage nitrated cotton which by nitration becomes an explosive—may be dissolved into a plastic substance and when the ether alcohol solvent has in its turn been evaporated the cellulose becomes a hard tough translucent mass. Before hardening however the stuff is pressed into grains of various shapes which burn with a bright orange flame and without smoke. Our smokeless powder is a brother of cellulose so useful in medicine and the art of photography while celluloid in the endless applications is a first cousin and like just beyond the

dividing line of those substances soluble in ether alcohol.

The cotton used may be either the blooms straight from the fields or the waste in either case the cotton is cleaned by an alkaline bath and then well dried in an atmosphere of 15° to 20° F. The workers tell in this temperature but the point of dryness of the air explains why they are not boiled alive. The object of the drying is to make the cotton more absorptive in the acid thus insuring more nearly perfect nitration. After the cotton has been dried it is



The nitrating house is like a great, gloomy steam laundry the cotton being dipped in nitro-fugal wringers like these in which clothes are washed.

and then washing them in water. This was the first step in the evolution of smokeless powder. Because of the great violence and erratic behavior of the explosive thus discovered it took years to develop it into a safe propellant. More than half a century ago Austria and later France used nitrocellulose in their ordnance but its impetuous action could not then be properly curbed and a series of accidents and unexpected explosions caused its abandonment. Years later when the speedy torpedo boat and the rapid fire gun arrived, French chemists through stress of need found ways to check the explosive violence of gun

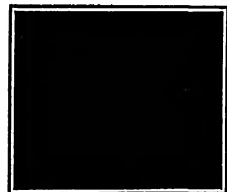


The powder is forced through manure dies in the form of an endless rope, perforated from end to end with a conical group of circular passages.

packed in airtight casks and sent to the nitrating house where it is soaked for half an hour in a strong mixture of sulphuric and nitric acids. The reaction frees from the cotton a percentage of moisture which if not withdrawn would dilute the nitric acid and affect the character of the product. Sulphuric acid has a strong affinity for water and it extra to the moisture, thus leaving the nitric acid unimpaired and capable of doing its full work upon the cotton.

The nitrating house is not unlike a big steam laund.

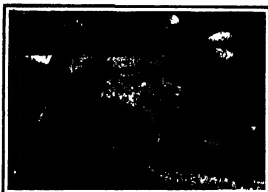
(Continued on page 142)



This view shows the important process of washing the cotton in the alkaline bath for the purpose of removing all traces of oil.



The "pyre" is filled into open tubs, and transported to steaming tanks, where it is boiled and belled to extract the major part of the clinging acid.



Passing the fibre pulp through the "worm-machine" whence it comes from the rollers in cakes containing about 40 per cent of water.



One of the mechanical appliances in which the "pyre" is mixed with the ether-alcohol solvent, and extruded into "rope" before pressing it into solid cylinders.



The drying house, where all but a very small percentage of the moisture is extracted by pressure and finally by the use of alcohol to drive the dampness before it and leave enough of the spirit behind to form the needed solvent.



In the drying house, where the powder grains are stored away and dried to the proper stage, before testing and packing away in airtight tanks.

NEW SMOKELESS POWDER IS MANUFACTURED.

## A WAY OUT OF THE MARINE TURBINE

## BIRMINGHAM

Provided that it can be run at the high speed at which its full efficiency can be assured, the steam turbine is the most economical of all steam engines. On land, as a drive, say for electric generators this high speed of rotation can be employed, since a type of generator may be required up to that is suitable to that speed. When the turbine is employed to drive the propellers of a steamship, it is no longer possible to run it at the best speed for economy, and this for the reason that the propeller at the outward end of the turbine shaft would be employed to drive the propeller at a less speed than those demanded by the turbine. If we run the shaft at the maximum efficiency speed of the turbine, there will be a loss of efficiency at the propeller. If we run the shaft at the maximum efficiency speed of the propeller, there will be a loss of efficiency in the turbine.

Here we have a dilemma which the marine engineer has hitherto found it impossible to avoid. He has attempted to cut the Gordian knot by a compromise, and has tried to find a mean speed of rotation (too slow for the turbine, too fast for the propeller) which would give the best or rather the least bad results on the "real per horsepower per hour" basis.

It requires no very keen discernment to perceive that the solution of the problem lies in the selection of some suitable intermediate speed between the turbine and propeller, and so far back as 1904, in a report to George Westinghouse, George W. Melville, the former Engineer in Chief of the Navy, and Mr. John H. MacFarlane, made the following statement: "If one could devise a means of controlling, in a practical manner, the necessary high speed of revolution of the turbine with the comparatively low rate of revolution required by an efficient propeller, the problem would be solved, and the turbine would practically wipe out the reciprocating engine for the propulsion of ships." The solution of this problem would be a stroke of great genius.

In the intervening years three entirely different methods have been devised for meeting the difficulty. One is to install high-speed turbo-generators, and utilize the current to drive slow speed motors direct-connected to the propeller shafts. This method is not new. In this direction has given such good results that the Ford River Shipbuilding Company recently put in a bid for the equipment of our 26,000-ton battleships with an installation of this kind. Another is the turbine known as the hydraulic reduction drive, two hydraulic turbines are interposed between the steam turbine and the propeller; the one connected to the turbine the other directly connected to the propeller. A controlling valve between the two which enable the speed to be reduced to any desired extent. For both of these systems it is claimed that high efficiency has been secured. The third method, which is illustrated in the accompanying illustration) consists in the use of a mechanical reducing gear. During a series of exhaustive tests recently made at the Westinghouse shops, this experimental gear showed the astonishingly small friction loss of one and one-half per cent. These results are far superior to those obtained with the other two methods, and unless some unforeseen disadvantages should develop when the full-size gear comes to be installed on a warship or merchant steamer. It may safely be said that in this reduction gear has been found the final solution of the marine steam turbine problem.

It was no easy task to devise a gearing which would run smoothly and without excessive wear at the high speeds required for steam turbines, and at the same time transmit the thousands of horsepower carried by propeller shafts, which may be as high as 10,000 "Mauritania" can be about 18,000 horsepower per shaft. The experimental gear which is illustrated on the front page of this issue was constructed at the Westinghouse Works at Pittsburgh, and after a long undergirding, and is still being subjected to a series of tests. It was realized that if the results were to be convincing, the experimental plant must be on a large scale, and the gear was therefore designed to transmit continuously no less than 6,000 horsepower.

As will be seen from the illustrations, the gears are helical that is to say, they do not run straight across the face of the wheel parallel to the axis, as in the case of ordinary spur gears, but they are cut in the form of a steep spiral. This construction allows the wheels to roll into contact without shock or jar. Of course, this helical form of tooth makes a strong and thrust in the direction of the axis of the shaft, and in order to prevent this, one-half of the gear was cut with the spirals running in one direction and the other half with the spirals in the opposite direction. In this way the end thrust, due to the obliquity of the teeth, is completely balanced.

In spite of the marvellous accuracy with which the teeth of gears can be cut by modern machinery, it is impossible to form them so truly and align the shafts so perfectly as to get an absolutely uniform contact throughout the entire length of the gear. This is an

important consideration in all gears, but becomes doubly so when, as in this case, they may have to transmit from ten to twenty thousand horsepower.

The inventors have met the difficulty by a very ingenious construction designated as a floating frame which they describe as follows: "The frame which carries the bearings for the piston is a heavy steel casting supported only at a single point midway between the two bearings. This support is of the form of a bracket the frame is free to oscillate in a vertical plane passing through the axis of the piston, but is held securely against motion in any other direction. Furthermore, the frame is free to move in any direction. Any tendency of the teeth to bear harder at one end of the gear than the other would tend to unbalance the respective end thrusts due to the right and left-hand spiral of the teeth, but the piston cannot present any resistance to unbalanced end thrust, it constantly adjusts itself in the direction of its axis to the position corresponding to equilibrium between the opposing forces. This means that the tooth contact pressures are always automatically equalized.

"If there are any minute irregularities in the spacing of the teeth, which would tend to make the contact harder at one point than in any part of the revolution this tendency is defeated by the floating frame, the position of which about its central support or fulcrum is controlled solely by the pressures of the teeth. In short, the tendency of the teeth to bear harder naturally, the floating frame always yields under the slightest tendency of an unbalanced contact pressure, in such a way as to transfer the smallest increment of contact pressure to another section of the gear that is better adapted to receive it. In this way, the floating frame, which would be less inclined to take its full share of the stress. In short, the gears are self-adjusting to relieve and equalize all abnormal strains, and are consequently independent of the small inaccuracies that are impossible to eliminate in the best commercial manufacturing operations."

The gear was tested by means of a special hydraulic brake, the reduction gear being interposed between the turbine and the brake, and in six tests the brake horsepower delivered by the gear at different speeds varied from 3,715 to 5,937. Since there is no way in which to measure the efficiency of the reduction gear turbine, it was necessary to establish the exact brake horsepower in some other way. Fortunately, it is a characteristic of the steam turbine that, as long as the steam pressure is maintained, the efficiency is constant. The absolute inlet pressure of commercially dry steam is a very accurate measure of the brake horsepower the turbine is developing. Accordingly, a dynamometer was connected to the exhaust pipe, and substituted for the reduction gear, the turbine was run at a fixed speed, a constant vacuum was maintained in the exhaust pipe, and the inlet pressure corresponding to the desired load of the turbine was obtained. From these tests the following results were obtained:

H. P. of turbine as determined from inlet pressure.		Efficiency	
H. P. delivered by propeller.	H. P. determined from inlet pressure.		
3,715	3,715	92.7	
4,158	4,197	99.0	
4,678	4,692	98.9	
5,038	5,108	98.7	
5,488	5,597	98.5	
5,937	6,067	98.7	

A reliable check upon these results is afforded by the rise in temperature of the oil with the gear as lubricated since the transmission loss in the gear appears as heat in the oil. By measuring the quantity of oil circulated and noting the rise in temperature, a close approximation to the number of British thermal units per hour is obtainable. When the gear was delivering 5,038 horsepower, 691 pounds of oil were circulated, with an average rise in temperature of 9.58 deg. F., from which it follows that the total heat absorbed per hour was 164,830 British thermal units. As 2,445 British thermal units per hour is the equivalent of a horsepower, the total heat accounted for in the oil is 67.17 brake horsepower; and since the total brake horsepower delivered by the gear is 5,038, it follows that the efficiency must be 95.75 per cent. In view of this remarkable coincidence of results, we agree with Mr. H. H. Lumsden, the consulting engineer, that the efficiency of the gear is conclusively established as more than 95.5 per cent. The results are, of course, a great surprise and quite unprecedented, but in view of the remarkable adjustability afforded by the floating frame, they are well within reason.

With these results before him, Mr. Westinghouse has made an investigation of the economies which would be secured by applying the gear to the Canadian "Mauritania" and "Lusitania," which are each capable of developing 70,000 horsepower. If the same high efficiency could be secured on board ship as has been secured in the testing room, the results which he arrives at seem to be well founded. It is known that the propeller efficiency in these ships is low, and

probably does not exceed 65 per cent. If so, the actual effective propelling power is only about 45,000 horsepower. At the lower speed of revolution resulting from the use of the reduction gear, propellers could be installed that would have an efficiency of about 85 per cent; which means that the shaft horsepower required for the same effective propelling power would be less than 37,000—a saving of about 10 per cent. This means that the "Mauritania" could save 10,000 horsepower or over 30 tons, could reduce the boiler equipment and the coal consumption on each voyage about one-seventh.

But, in addition to this economy at the propeller and of the shaft, there would be corresponding and even greater economies realized at the turbine. For it is well understood that for equal efficiencies in any two turbines the number of revolutions of the blades is, roughly speaking, inversely proportional to the square of the respective peripheral speeds of the rotating elements. But the peripheral speed of the rotating elements in the turbines of the "Mauritania" and "Lusitania" is only one-third of the speed common to large turbines used on land. This would mean that to obtain the efficiencies common to the latter, the "Mauritania's" turbines would require approximately nine times as many revolutions of the blades as the existing machines of prohibitive length. To maintain the same speed of revolution and increase the peripheral speed of the turbines to that of turbines in land practice, the rotors would be of the same diameter as the rotors now seen above by the increased efficiency of the low-speed propeller, could be further reduced to about 45,000 horsepower, and the total efficiency of the whole installation would be increased to about 85 per cent in the coal consumption. These vessels burn about 4,700 tons per voyage, and since the coal costs about \$2.50 per ton, the saving in coal alone would be \$100 per voyage, the resulting increase of profit per voyage, for fuel, etc., for the same number of steamer that would be required. A further valuable advantage would be that the reduction of over 1,600 tons in the coal required for each voyage would add that amount to the cargo capacity.

But there are further economies, as will be seen by reference to the illustrations on our front page, which show the space occupied by the present turbine equipment of the "Mauritania" and the space which the high-speed turbines combined with reduction gears were employed on three propeller shafts. These remarkable savings speak for themselves, and further comment is unnecessary.

All the advantages that would result from the employment of this device on merchant steamers would be realized also on naval vessels, together with other collateral advantages due to the fact that the high-speed turbine would not suffer the large drop in speed which would result, in the case of the present turbines, when they are operating at cruising speed. With the superior steam economy of the high-speed turbine the boiler capacity would be reduced fully one-third, and with the same bunker capacity the radius of action would of course be enormously increased—a consideration of incalculable importance in the extended operations of a naval campaign.

## The Current Supplement.

Among the big things which the Big State of California produces are ostriches. These birds are discussed by C. P. Holdrege, of Fresno, in the ostrich and of species are popularly discussed by Prof. Otto N. Witt. Herbert A. Humphrey writes on an internal combustion pump and other applications of a new principle. His article has been reproduced in full, for its simplicity and strength of construction, which the explosive force is started directly upon the water, and in which no rotating bearings, solid piston, connecting rod, crank shafts, or shafts of any sort are required. It describes the results of his experiments with very successful types of pumps, which have been set to work on a sufficiently large scale to demonstrate their utility and economy. Some interesting notes on flint-locks are given by Mr. J. H. Lumsden, of the University of 1780, together with an illustration showing how the earth will be injured in the coming fall on the night of May 18th next. The second installment of the paper of Maurice H. Hall on combustion and explosion is a primer on explosives for coal miners—published. Dr. Ludwig Stahly writes on the earth's propeller and its effect. Canon Divesse Divesse contributes a most interesting description of the methods to be followed in the construction of a steamship, and the propeller by machine. The death of DeLongue's ship is an article on oceanic navigation.

### Notes on Halley's Comet.

Summary of Hall's report.  
Observed at Denbigh Observatory.

Greenwich Height 1870	Altitude	Distance	log r	log s	Mr
Feb. 8	23 44.3	+14.14	0.1974	0.5866	17
9	23 28.5	+13.92			
10	23 14.6	+13.82			
11	23 02.1	+13.75			
12	22 50.3	+13.68	0.7842	0.4840	17
13	22 39.6	+13.64			
14	22 30.1	+13.58			
15	22 21.5	+13.51			
16	22 13.7	+13.45	0.1564	0.3870	18
17	22 06.5	+13.39			
18	21 59.8	+13.34			
19	21 53.5	+13.28			
20	21 47.5	+13.23			
21	21 41.8	+13.17			
22	21 36.4	+13.12	0.1375	0.3430	19
23	21 31.2	+13.07			
24	21 26.2	+13.02			
25	21 21.4	+12.97			
26	21 16.8	+12.92			
27	21 12.4	+12.87	0.0768	0.2760	24
28	21 08.1	+12.82			
29	21 03.9	+12.77			
30	20 59.7	+12.72	0.1177	0.2606	20
Mar. 1	20 55.5	+12.67			
2	20 51.3	+12.62			
3	20 47.1	+12.57			
4	20 42.9	+12.52			
5	20 38.7	+12.47			
6	20 34.5	+12.42	0.0908	0.2740	22
7	20 30.3	+12.37			
8	20 26.1	+12.32			
9	20 21.9	+12.27			
10	20 17.7	+12.22			
11	20 13.5	+12.17			
12	20 09.3	+12.12	0.0768	0.2760	24
13	20 05.1	+12.07			
14	20 00.9	+12.02			
15	19 56.7	+11.97			
16	19 52.5	+11.92	0.0515	0.2785	27
17	19 48.3	+11.87			
18	19 44.1	+11.82			
19	19 39.9	+11.77			
20	19 35.7	+11.72	0.0270	0.2770	30
21	19 31.5	+11.67			
22	19 27.3	+11.62			
23	19 23.1	+11.57			
24	19 18.9	+11.52	0.0012	0.2750	34
25	19 14.7	+11.47			
26	19 10.5	+11.42			
27	19 06.3	+11.37			
28	19 02.1	+11.32			
29	18 57.9	+11.27	0.9740	0.2710	30
30	18 53.7	+11.22			
Mar. 1	18 49.5	+11.17			
2	18 45.3	+11.12			
3	18 41.1	+11.07	0.9457	0.2652	48
4	18 36.9	+11.02			
5	18 32.7	+10.97			
6	18 28.5	+10.92			
7	18 24.3	+10.87			
8	18 20.1	+10.82	0.9164	0.2565	55
9	18 15.9	+10.77			
10	18 11.7	+10.72			
11	18 07.5	+10.67			
12	18 03.3	+10.62			
13	17 59.1	+10.57	0.8865	0.2445	66
14	17 54.9	+10.52			
15	17 50.7	+10.47			
16	17 46.5	+10.42			
17	17 42.3	+10.37			
18	17 38.1	+10.32			
19	17 33.9	+10.27	0.8560	0.2385	82
20	17 29.7	+10.22			

During December Halley's comet became bright enough to be seen with telescopes. Several hours' direct views of it with four different telescopes. Prof. Philip F. Fox, director of Dearborn Observatory, saw it during the total eclipse of the moon on the morning of November 27th with the 8½ inch finder of the 18-inch telescope.

According to the Harvard Astronomical Bulletin No. 379, Prof. E. B. Barnard photographed the comet with the three telescopes on December 23rd, and finds upon the photograph a very faint tail in position angle 69 deg with a length of 10 min. The tail was very slender and straight.

According to Prof. E. B. Frost, director of Yerkes Observatory, Halley's comet will be visible to the naked eye about April 1st. It will cross the face of the sun on May 18th at which time the earth will be plunged in the comet's tail for a period of several hours. The time of the comet's transit will be rather unfavorable for eastern observations, but undoubtedly it will be observed from the Lick Observatory in California and through other western telescopes. The comet will be visible to the naked eye about April 1st in the morning sky just before sunrise. It crosses the sun it will appear in the evening sky just after sunset.

### Atmospheric Electricity as a Source of Power.

The utility of the schemes often promulgated for utilizing the electricity of the atmosphere, with its tension of many thousand volts, is made plain by the following considerations. According to the most reliable measurements that have been made the strength of the current flowing from the air to the earth is about 10<sup>10</sup> amperes per square kilometer. The maximum tension may be estimated at 100,000 volts. Hence the letters of the above figure, which is not permanently crossed 10<sup>10</sup> × 10<sup>10</sup> × 10<sup>10</sup> watt, which is equal to 1/10 watt. This is equivalent to 1 kilowatt for each 10,000 square kilometers (3,661 square miles) or 1 horsepower for each 7,460 square kilometers (2,880 square miles) of the earth's surface, and amounts to about 10 horsepower for the whole of the German empire, and 50,000 horse-power for the entire surface of the globe.—*Pratt.*

What is declared to be the largest and most expensive leather belt ever made for driving purposes has been recently shipped from New York. The belt is 342 feet long, 4 feet wide, 3/4 inch thick, and was constructed at a cost of \$7,300. To make the belt the skin of 840 steers was required.

## Correspondence.

### THE FIRST "ALL-BITS-UP" SHIP.

To the Editor of the Scientific American  
In glancing over your issue of November 21st, I was struck by your correspondent's interesting article, "A Dreadnought of 1851." However, does it not seem more logical to go back a year earlier to Ericsson's "Monitor" which was without doubt the first "big-gun" ship built. The "Roanoke" was really a combination of the "Merrimack" and the "Monitor" being like her antagonist, a rased frigate, and resembling "Monitor" in the matter of turret armament. It appears that the "Monitor" was the original dreadnought, and the present mighty vessels of that class are but the design of the great Swedish American engineer applied to ocean-going vessels. For he is known as Ericsson never intended to employ the "Monitor" vessels for other than coast defense duty.  
Brooklyn, N. Y.  
GERALD REED CHODIN

### HEATING A RIFLE.

To the Editor of the Scientific American  
I was interested in Mr. Woodland's article, "Lighting a Rifle," in your January 22nd issue, and I would like to mention a fact which I think he has overlooked, viz., the jump of the rifle. This term refers to the angle through which the barrel recoils while the projectile is traveling the barrel. In off-hand firing the rifle recoils upward, and sometimes slightly sideways about a center which is probably a little forward of the butt plate. The correction for this should be applied to both sights, and directly proportional to their distances from the center of recoil, but as the rear sight is very near this center, and has little vertical movement due to the jump, it is sufficient to elevate the front sight through this angle (this is done by the manufacturer, notice the black front sight of a six-shooter which always has a cost alderlike jump.) Mr. Woodland's plan was obviously to make the correction on the rear sight only, and while this would have been all right, the front sight would correct the angle of jump. It still introduces a constant vertical error at all ranges—an error equal to the vertical movement of the front sight. While this is small, and perhaps negligible for the 0.22 caliber, it would still affect his calculations slightly. The bullet would strike a little high, tending to intersect the line of sight nearer in the ascending branch and farther in the descending branch of the trajectory.  
Chapanna, N. Y.  
A. W. BRYCE

### CURIOUS FACTS ABOUT SQUARES AND CUBES.

To the Editor of the Scientific American  
I have discovered the following curious facts about squares and cubes. These facts, in my opinion, are interesting from a scientific point of view besides being of some practical use. I shall be very glad to have you publish them if you deem them of sufficient worth.

1. To be a square a number must have as its unit's digit one of the digits 0, 1, 4, 5, 6 or 9. This, of course, is well known but I put it down as an aid in understanding the other facts.

2. To be a square a number, if its unit's digit be 0, 1, 4, 5, 6, or 9, must have for its ten's digit 0, 2, 4, 6, or 8, i. e., the ten's digit must be zero or an even number. If the unit's digit be 6 the ten's digit must be 1, 3, 5, 7, or 9, an odd number. If the unit's digit be 5 the final digit of the number must be 005, 225, 445, or 665. If the unit's digit be 0, there must be an even number of zeros at the end of the number.

3. A number, to be a square, must have as remainder when "nines are cast out" of it either 0, 1, 4, or 7. Signify the sum of the digits of a number gives the same remainder when divided by 9, as when the number is divided by 9, this test is easily applied by dividing the sum of the digits of the number to be tested by 9. To this test I can give an algebraic proof.

4. A number, to be a cube, must have as remainder when "nines are cast out" other 0, 1, or 8. This fact also I can prove by means of algebra. I can furnish you with a device, if you desire it, by means of which, the square of the numbers 1 to 25 being given, the squares can be written off in order of fifteen without any multiplications.  
Normal School, Petersburg.  
G. H. KNAV

### THE FIRST AND THE LAST.

To the Editor of the Scientific American  
After her ascent of the lower north peak of Mount Huascarán in Peru in 1906, Miss A. Peck wrote in Harper's Magazine and in other periodicals and papers the following:

"It may be regarded as certain that Huascarán is above 22,000 feet, hence higher than Aconcagua, 22,000 feet, and the loftiest mountain known on this hemisphere. If, as seems probable, the height is 24,000 feet, I have the honor of breaking the world's record for men as well as women."

Knowing from her own statement that Miss Peck made no instrumental observations above 16,000 feet on Huascarán, and believing, furthermore, according to be the highest mountain of the Andes, I decided to test the truth of these assertions by sending expert European engineers to make a detailed, up-to-date triangulation of the two summits of Mount Huascarán.

The only previous known measurement of this mountain was made many years ago, when it was said to have given a height of 22,180 feet for the north or higher summit.

Prof. Schrader, who a few years ago made the most authentic measurement yet made of Aconcagua, and M. Henri Vallot, both well known French scientists and heads of the Société Géographique de France, the *Traité Topographique* of Paris undertook to assist in getting up the expedition, and gave the matter their close personal attention.

M. de Larminat, expert engineer, who has carried out important survey work for the above society was selected as chief of the mission. In July 1909 he accompanied by two other competent topographers, he started for Peru.

Favored by good weather conditions and assisted as to transport by the Peruvian government they executed a careful and detailed survey from the sea to Yari and the mountain, estimating the horizontal lengths of four stations in the Black Cordillera; from each of which they triangulated the two peaks of Huascarán, so that Huascarán now stands as one of the most accurately measured high Andean mountains.

The results are: Height of north peak climbed by Miss Peck, 22,112 feet, of south peak still unclimbed, 22,157 feet. These figures may vary by a few feet, but not many when the calculations are finally gone over by M. Vallot for verification.

Mount Aconcagua, nearly 22,500 feet, still remains, as I predicted, as *Rio Marila* (Cuzco) and other Andean explorers have always maintained, the highest peak of South America.

Blue Peak's highest ascent is that therefore stands, north peak Huascarán 22,112 feet, including 24,000 feet, as she estimated it, and she has not the honor of breaking the world's record, either for men or women, for my two highest ascents of respectively 22,158 and 22,200 feet, both before her, in the case of women while a number of men have made ascents exceeding her highest.

Alfred  
PAUL HILLMAN WORKMAN

### Official Meteorological Summary, New York, N. Y., January, 1910.

Atmospheric pressure: Highest, 30.79, lowest 29.20, mean, 30.10. Temperature: Highest 51, date 21st, lowest, 5, date 10th. Wind: Prevailing direction, 21st, coolest day, 18, date 4th, mean of maximum for the month, 58.8, mean of minimum, 25.0. Absolute means: 24, normal, 30.6, daily excess compared with the mean of 40 years, 1.8. Warmest day, temperature of January, 40, in 1880-1890, coldest mean, 23, in 1893. Absolute maximum and minimum of January for 40 years, 87 and 6. Average daily excess above January 1st, 1.8. Precipitation: 5.61, greatest in 24 hours, 1.58, date, 13th-14th, average for January for 40 years, 3.80. Accumulated excess since January 1st, 1.81. Greatest precipitation 6.15, 1885, least, 1.15, in 1871. Wind: Prevailing direction, northwest, total movement 9163 miles. Average hourly velocity, 12.3, maximum velocity 56 miles per hour. Weather: Clear days, 7, partly cloudy 10, cloudy, 14, on 20th 16th. Mean relative humidity, 77.1. Sleet, 14, 23th. Ice from 6th, 21st, 23th.

### The Argentine Exposition.

The centenary of the Argentine Republic is to be celebrated by an International agricultural exposition which is to take place this year. The exposition is to be opened at Palermo (the new Argentinian city) on Friday June 3rd, 1910, and will close on Sunday July 31st, 1910. The exposition will be divided into eight sections:

1. Geology, Hydrology, Climatology and Geography in relation to Agriculture. 2. Machinery and Implements. 3. Rural Engineering. 4. Vegetable products. 5. Animal products. 7. Means of promoting agriculture. 8. Special section for seeds.

Entrance and applications for space may be written in Spanish, French, English, German or Italian, and should be addressed to the Secretario de la Exposición Internacional de Agricultura, 40 1910 Florida 23a. Entrance tickets, 2 Argentine pesos, and applications for space must be made on the printed forms which the Secretariat of the Exhibition will furnish to all persons who may apply for them at the office of the Secretariat at the address mentioned, or to the Argentine legations and consulates abroad. Notices and applications abroad can be presented at the Argentine legations and consulates general on the same date and under the same conditions as any others.

# THE LOWE OBSERVATORY ON ECHO MOUNTAIN, CALIFORNIA, U. S. A.

BY EDGAR LUCIEN LARKIN, DIRECTOR

Do you want to imagine that you can almost near the earth in its turmoil? No word printed on paper can convey to the mind of a reader this impressive effect above the clouds. When Echo Mountain is within a heavy cloud the darkness is that of night. From sunset until dawn when clouds are scarcely down the jet black solitude is indeed weird. The mind is always profoundly impressed and amazed. Then is vivid and alert. In the midst of this quietude and darkness lights are suddenly turned on by a distant flame. Night turns to day. Huge masses of mist and wires in a dynamic in Los Angeles. In rapid revolution, causes the light to flash out on the mountain top. The observatory is on a sharp peak between two immense canyons, deep and wide. The mounts of these canyons cut in horizontal rocks are blacker at midnight than the imagination can conceive.

Who knows the meaning of the word "star"? None is able to understand what (ever he sees) if lying in a valley. There on Echo Mountain the atmosphere is so clear that the stars seem near enough to touch, and the mountain air wonderfully pure. The stellar hosts glow with a brilliancy all unknown to those living any where near sea level. At all times, save immediately after copious rains the dust envelope surrounding the earth is visible beneath the amount of the mountain. It covers the entire vista, even out to the sea. To us on the mountain top it seems of times as if every human would choke in this layer of dust. Above us at night, shine Sirius and Vega like huge diamonds, Arcturus and Rota likewise, and above all the giant star sun (Ansonus), glittering with amazing brilliancy in the distant south and flashing its rays over myriads of wave crests tossing in the Pacific Ocean. This the brilliant star in the celestial vault, cannot be seen from the latitude of New York. The magnificent constellations of Orion, Hercules and the Polar Bear are so beautiful that words are powerless to describe them. It is astonishing to behold the apparent narrowness of the galaxy. Mountains perspective the purity of the air and freedom from water vapor during two-thirds of the year combine to form an optical illusion. At times this deep-latitude influence approaches a night mirage, and one seems to be walking among the very stars. Here the watching hour is at sunset a sunset of orange and flowered plains and watery vastness beyond. Round and about the winter solstice the solar disk may be seen standing on the sea. Soon half of the mighty sphere only is visible. The last view is comparable to an arc light. Then one by one the first magnitude stars are seen flashing between distant peaks. Before the last gleam of the sun has vanished, Alderamin, Altair, Rigel, Betelgeuse, Procyon illumine the sky.

Many gigantic meteors, peaks, and comets lift their heads within a radius of a hundred miles of the peak. Thus lie to the east to the north, and toward the sea in the west. The last view is that of an amphitheater. The south is open even down to the beach. At sunset large steamers look small indeed when compared to the face of the adjacent sea. Artists have journeyed to Echo Mountain to paint the sky and ripens to imitate nature on canvas. But brush and pencil are as impotent as words. The view of clouds presented herewith is one of hundreds of thousands. When the first rays of the rising sun strike such cloud banks as these, prismatic colors are seen

that defy description—gorgeous oranges, carnations, and hallopiros beneath. The effect is heightened by the slanting of birds over the canyons. As the sun rises above the horizon the blossoming plains below, the domes and spires of Los Angeles and Pasadena, surrounded by acres of roses, with beds of delicate wisterias, and rows of flaming red poinsettias, become visible. As the clouds are dispelled, miles after miles of trained cypress, pepper, orange, lemon, apricot, almond, walnut, prune, peach, pear, and nutmeg trees, together with hundreds of long lances, drive and roads adorned on both sides with tall, graceful eucalyptus trees, are seen.

Carved a floor with jet black velvet, and throw down upon it a myriad of diamonds in wild confusion, and perhaps you may conceive how the densely packed Milky Way appears from the observatory. Millions is a word becoming astronomically obsolete; billions of stars in an expression much more nearly true of the Milky Way. Billions of stars appear in the faint depths of the Galaxy. These constitute the apparent cosmic floor, the base of Nature, and of the stellar structure. In hundreds of acres, there does not seem to be place for more stars. Millions are finer than the points of sea needles, and these make

or better, over the rim of the eastern canyon. Then millions of stars seem to be pouring into the depths of the rock-walled abyss descending low beneath the observatory. Floods of stellar points flow downward, as seen in the reversing eyepiece.

The observatory on Mount Lowe is 70 feet in length. The peak had to be cut down to admit the foundations. The telescope is a fine Alvan Clark equatorial, with 16-inch objectives. A fine Bruker telescope is here, and many other instruments.

An inclined electric-driven steel cable draws two cars from the depth of Rubio Canyon to the summit of Echo Mountain. The length of this railway is 3,000 feet, vertical ascent 1,335 feet, and time of ascent and descent 8 minutes. The altitude of the observatory is 4,490 feet, and is 4 miles from Pasadena, 13 from Los Angeles, and 18 from the nearest shore line of the Pacific.

The railway from Los Angeles through Pasadena and Altadena line in between on yards of orange trees. Golden fruit may be seen during five months of each year. Almond trees in bloom and orange flowers and ripened fruit are objects eliciting the admiration of all.

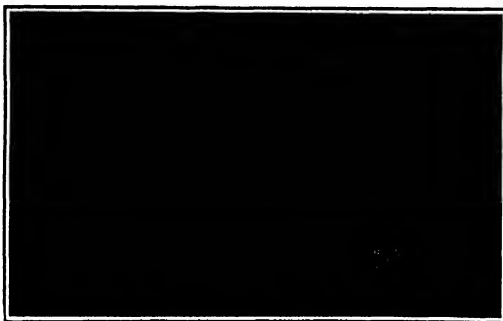
This observatory was founded by the death of living aviators, Prof. Thaddeus B. C. Lowe, in 1894. Dr. Lewis Swift was astronomer in charge until August 11th, 1909.

## A Kinetograph with

Among the novel uses for which animated photographs have been utilized, one of the most ingenious is that recently perfected by two English inventors, Messrs. J. Paterson and T. T. Munro. This is its application to rifle-fire practice, the idea being to render the eye of the marksman keener, and to enable him to be more expert in the quick handling of his arm.

The "biocope target" as it is called, is of very simple construction and operation. There are two rollers, upon which is wound a sheet of paper of any desired size, like the films of a camera, the clear space between the two rollers comprising the screen upon which the pictures are shown. The lantern is placed behind the marksman in such a way that their movements do not interrupt or interfere with the projection. Immediately behind this paper screen is a self-recording target system, which instantaneously converts the value of each shot to an indicator at the firing point. The value of these hits may be graduated as required. Thus the maximum points corresponding to a bull's eye are given for a fatal shot, another value for inflicting upon the objective a mortal wound, another for temporary disablement, and so on. The indicator not only communicates the individual hit, but at the completion of the round, or practice, registers and gives the total value of hits made.

The range can be varied from 15 to 25 yards as desired. The paper screen is driven by a belt or pulley corresponding to a bull's eye are given for a bullet perforation is wound up on the second roller. The self-recording mechanism behind the screen is so arranged that it absolutely synchronizes with the movements of the object in the picture, at which aim is taken, so that there is no possible chance of a wrong value being given for an individual shot. The indicators are placed immediately above the marksman's head of the firing position, and a bell can be substituted by the ringing of a bell, as with the ordinary



Grand panorama from Echo Mountain. Looking due south from the Lowe Observatory. Los Angeles is 100 square miles. The cloud is exactly over Pasadena. The observatory is shown in the foreground. Los Angeles is to the right of this view.

THE LOWE OBSERVATORY ON ECHO MOUNTAIN, CALIFORNIA, U. S. A.

a pavement of starry sand I never really saw this celestial base until with the telescope up here. After several days of rain, the atmosphere is swept clear of dust. Then one is really within cosmic depths when the telescope suddenly awakes over fathomless interstellar chasms, doors or windows through which one apparently looks into the very bottom of space. These areas are absolutely black. No sensation within the entire range of stellar research, at the hour of a mountain midnight, is so completely overpowering as the vision of an abyss in the stellar floor. Round and about these blackest vastness, there are cases where the stars are piled in heaps, raised into windrows, or strewn out into wisps, streamers, filaments, and spray. Yet of all these stellar hosts the faintest point may be as white hot sun, and larger than our little star—the sun.

The giant nebula of Orion is a mass of starry loam, a fabric loaded with glittering points. As astronomical telescopes reveal all objects before it. The reaction of the earth is very apparent on Echo Mountain. With high powers, the stars go racing across the field of view. An incredibly startling effect is that of the stars when the telescope is turned away or fielded just as they rise out of some distant peak,

bull's eye target. The pictures, which have been especially prepared for use with this apparatus, are of such a character as to develop the celerity and certainty of the marksmen's aim to the supreme degree. There is a scout scene, the enemy appearing on the picture first at a relative 100 yards range. He drops on his knee and fires point blank at the marksmen a certain number of rounds, corresponding possibly to a complete charge of his rifle magazine. The marksmen seeing the target raises his rifle immediately the kinematographic scout is seen, but does not commence firing until the scout opens fire, the appearance of a puff of smoke in the picture indicating the commencement of firing.

The scout then retreats at the double to a distance corresponding to 200 yards range, when the same cycle of operations is repeated. The scout then retires once more until he reaches a point corresponding to 500 yards range, and the same tactics are once more carried through. It will be seen that in each phase the target becomes decreased in size, according to the range, and at the maximum range offers a very small object to the marksmen. Moreover, the fact that the latter has to discharge the whole of his rounds in the short period between the picture scout commencing and finishing firing at each distance, in order to score, indicates that aiming and firing must be accomplished very quickly. Yet it has been found that in the course of but little practice, the marksmen can pick up the range and conform with the firing conditions so expertly that about ninety per cent of his shots can be got in with each round at the respective ranges.

The invention is also applicable to training in revolver shooting, and for this work an ingeniously suitable film has been prepared. It portrays a conflict with an armed house-breaker. The burglar effects his entrance through the window, under which is the room, a roll-top desk is drawn at an angle. In the course of his work the burglar is disturbed, presumably by someone entering the apartment. He instantly shields himself behind the desk, exposing but his head and shoulders, and cocks his revolver. The burglar's disturber is represented by the marksmen at the firing point, who at the psychological moment the burglar is about to fire, empties his revolver. In this act the burglar presents a fat-headed target with his protruding head and shoulders at a few yards range. The burglar having emptied his arms turns to escape through the window, but in the act of dropping from the sill, to which he clings by one hand he releases his head, and drawing his revolver once more, fires. The marksmen waits until he sees the burglar's head fully exposed and just about to fire, and then shoots. In this case, owing to the greater range and the small area offered by the man's head and shoulders in profile, the area offered to the mark-

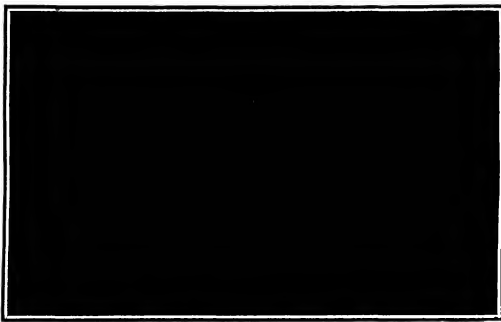
man's aim is somewhat small. The burglar indicator represents in silhouette the head and shoulders of the burglar in the two firing positions, and the vulnerable points of this part of the anatomy are shown on the indicator, so that the firer can instantly determine whether he has struck the target in a fatal spot, has

projected time after time, there being automatic devices for winding and rewinding the spool preparatory to projection. Being electrically driven, a uniform projecting speed is secured, and as it is directly under the control of the marksmen the apparatus is only set in action when required.

The idea can be developed to an indefinite extent, and the variety of pictures that can be used for improving the fire of the marksmen is endless. It can be adapted for individual or company firing, and very realistic scenes can be pictorially produced. The application of the microscope to this phase of military training has often been advocated and indeed attempted, but hitherto it has been found difficult to evolve a practical simple apparatus. The British War Office has investigated and subjected the invention to searching tests, and has ascertained that marksmanship can be so rapidly improved by this means that its general introduction into the service is being contemplated.

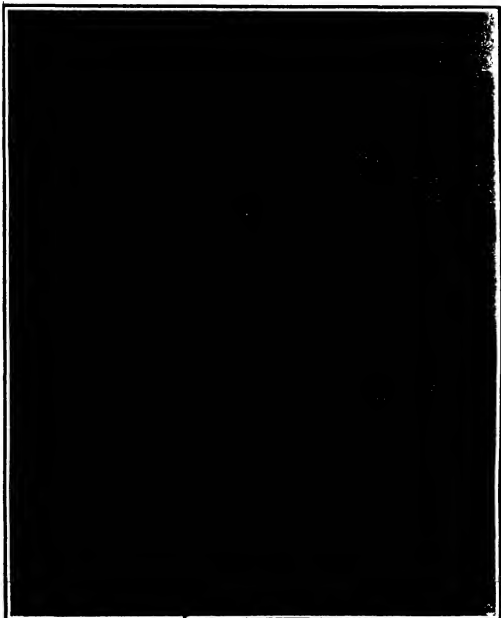
A new method of bonding new concrete to old was described by Mr. Frank Barber, of Toronto, in a recent article in the Canadian Engineer. This consists in placing bags of cracked ice on the last surfaces of concrete placed at night, thus reducing the temperature of the concrete and, consequently, retarding its time of setting, so that on the next morning the surface is still plastic and the concrete then placed will set in one mass with the old. The invention of this scheme is credited to Mr. O. L. Hicks, when he was contractor for a reinforced concrete truss bridge in Ontario. As all of the members of these trusses were of relatively small cross section the ice bags were easily placed in position, at the end of a day's work and it is stated that the method worked very successfully. To what extent it could be applied to heavier work is not as yet known.

Hitherto dew has been used as a beverage only in poetry, by the sun, flowers, and butterflies. It has recently been robbed of all its poetic character by being used for the refreshment of English soldiers. The English administration at Gibraltar, where water is very scarce, now collects dew by the following very simple method. A large pit is dug in the earth and covered with dry wood or straw which, in turn, is covered either with earth or with shavings. The straw or wood serves as a heat insulator and effectively prevents the condensation of heat from the ground to the layer of earth or the shavings from above. Consequently this earth or iron cools after sunset much more rapidly than the ground so that its temperature soon falls below the dew point of the surrounding air. Hence dew is formed upon the iron or the layer of earth in very large quantities. The water thus obtained is drained off into reservoirs and after clarification is used for drinking.



The cloud splendors of Echo Mountain south of the Lowe Observatory.

The clouds in this picture are about 1,000 feet below the building. Orange tree orchards are dimly seen in their shadows below.



This is not a volcano in eruption but a forest fire 4 miles west of the Lowe observatory, which fire started in La Canada Valley and traveled in way to the summit, burning for several days. Colored flames and smoke belied this volcano in action.

#### THE LOWE OBSERVATORY OF ECHO MOUNTAIN, CALIFORNIA, U. S. A.

indicated a mortal wound, or has either missed entirely or only inflicted a flesh wound.

The projection is automatically controlled. The lantern is electrically driven by means of a small motor, and this is operated from the firing position by means of a small switch. The same picture can be

## MORNING AND EVENING STARS FOR 1910

BY PROF. FREDERIC R. HONEY, TRINITY COLLEGE.

The popular expression "morning and evening stars" while signifying those planets which at different periods illuminate the heavens will naturally include in his study of the how the fixed stars whose names indicate that they will be invariably found in the same places on the celestial sphere. Their positions in the heavens may be memorized in the manner of his first observing the stars of higher magnitude whose complex and delicate distinctions (as in most cases of varying degrees of lower brilliancy in this way the heavens may be triangulated visually, and in process of time all the constellations may be easily identified. For such observations a star map is indispensable, and the positions of the stars should be located by right ascension and declination, which are given in the Nautical Almanac. The position of the celestial equator from which declinations are measured may be determined approximately by observing the stars which are near it on the star map, and in the same way the position of the first meridian intersecting the celestial equator at a point from which right ascensions are measured, may also be defined. Following this method seven-eighths of the celestial sphere (at latitude 40 deg.) will come within the range of vision, and the heavens may become an "open book." The distances to the fixed stars are so great that (except to the astronomer) their apparent positions are not disturbed. The earth revolves the opposite point in its orbit—a distance equal to about one hundred eighty-six million miles. For purposes of observation the earth may therefore be regarded as the center of the celestial sphere around which the stars appear to revolve once in a sidereal day, which is nearly four minutes shorter than the solar day, a difference due to the revolution of the earth around the sun once in 365.25 days. During this period the earth makes 360° rotations on its axis. As a consequence the stars rise nearly four minutes earlier every day, and during the year the major part of the celestial sphere comes within the range of vision at any one time of the twenty-four hours. The positions of the planets are continually changing, and in order to discover the region of the heavens in which to search for them their situation relative to the sun and earth should be determined as illustrated in Figs. 1 and 2. The plots of their orbits have been printed in the *Scientific American* in the issues of the following dates: March 17th, 1906, February 10th, 1907, February 16th, 1908, and March 6th, 1909, and the positions of all the planets are shown for every day of each year. Together they exhibit the courses of all the planets for the five consecutive years from 1906 to 1910 inclusive. The orbits of the asteroids which are between those of Mars and Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, and Neptune, are too small to be visible to the naked eye. A total of over six hundred being not more than five hundred miles in diameter. Several of the orbits are very eccentric and inclined at large angles to the plane of the ecliptic.

**THE SUN AND EARTH.**  
In order to bring the plots of the orbits of the planets within the limits of this page, the orbits of the terrestrial planets, which include Mercury, Venus, the earth and Mars, are drawn to a large scale as the space permits. Since the diameter of Neptune's orbit is thirty times that of the earth, the plot of the orbits of the major planets, including Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus and Neptune, are drawn to a scale which is very much reduced. In this plot the orbits of the earth and Mars are repeated by the reduced scale, the region of the asteroids or minor planets is indicated and the plots together show the continuity of the solar system. The plots of this page may be taken as a representation of the ecliptic or the earth's orbit, and if it be placed in a horizontal position a planet which is on one side may be described as being situated above and on the other side as below the ecliptic. The plot of each orbit the full line represents that part which is above,

and the dotted line that part which is below the ecliptic. The ascending and descending nodes *N* and *N'* are respectively the points where the planet passes from the space below to that above, and from the space above to that below the ecliptic, and *P*, the perihelion,

by the same distance at aphelion in July. The center of the orbit is at *c*. At a velocity of 18.5 miles per second the earth moves each day on the average nearly 1,600,000 miles, with an increase of velocity at perihelion and diminution at aphelion; making the complete revolution in 365.25 days. The position of the earth is shown in its intervals of four days at Greenwich, noon, and intermediate positions and dates may be interpolated by subdivision.

## MERCURY

The plane of Mercury's orbit is inclined at a greater angle (7 deg.) than that of any other of either the terrestrial or major planets. Its eccentricity is also greater than that of any of the planets. By the eccentricity is meant the distance from the center of the orbit to the sun (the linear eccentricity) divided by the semi-major axis. The linear eccentricity is 74 million miles, and the length of the major axis is 75 million miles. Mercury's mean distance from the sun is therefore thirty-six million miles with a diminution and increase of 74 million miles respectively at perihelion and aphelion. At perihelion the planet moves at a velocity of thirty-five miles a second, which is diminished to twenty-three miles a second at aphelion. Mercury's orbit is a marked illustration of the first two of Kepler's three laws. First. The orbit of each planet is an ellipse, with the sun in one of its foci. Second. The radius vector (*r*), the orbit radius whose length is continually changing) of each planet describes equal areas in equal times. For example, the area of the triangle with the sun as its vertex, and with a base equal to that part of the orbit included between the dates of August 30th and September 7th, is equal to the area of the triangle with the same vertex and for a base that part included between the dates October 15th and October 21st, in each fortnight with the second law, the length of the base of the triangle is continually diminishing from perihelion to aphelion, and increasing from aphelion to perihelion, which accounts for the rapid variation in the planet's velocity. Mercury's revolution around the sun is accomplished in very nearly eighty-eight days (87.97). This is repeated over four times during the year, and four dates are attached to the planet's velocity the positions are shown for every second day.

**VENUS.**  
The orbit of Venus is inclined to the plane of the ecliptic at an angle of 3.4 deg. The eccentricity is less than that of any other planet, and is barely visible in the plot, the distance from the sun to the center of the orbit is less than half a million miles. As a consequence, the velocity of the planet in its orbit at a mean distance of 67.3 million miles is nearly uniform at the rate of 21.9 miles per second. The period of revolution is 224.7 days. The dates within the orbit are those which belong to the first revolution, those within, to the second revolution, and that part of the orbit included between the positions of the planet for the first and second revolutions represents the distance traversed in seven-tenths of a year.

## MARS

The orbit of Mars is inclined at an angle of 1.85 deg.; and the center *c* is 13.2 million miles from the sun. The mean orbit velocity is fifteen miles per second, and the mean distance from the sun is 141.5 million miles. The period is 1.88 years.

## THE MAJOR PLANETS.

The inclination of Jupiter's orbit is 1.5 deg., with a linear eccentricity of 25.3 million miles. The planet's orbit velocity is 13.5 miles per second at a mean distance of 483.2 million miles. The period of revolution is 11.86 years. The direction in which the planet is seen from the sun is shown at intervals of twenty days.

Saturn's orbit is inclined at an angle of .55 deg. The eccentricity is nearly fifty million miles; and the mean distance is 906 million miles. The planet's velocity (Continued on page 146.)

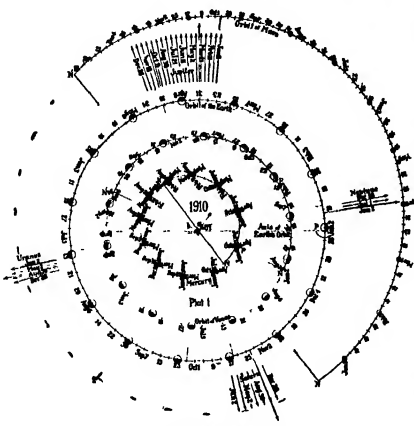


FIG. 1. POSITIONS OF THE PLANETS.

is the point of the planet's nearest approach to the sun. A line joining the points *N* and *N'*, the line of nodes, is the intersection of the plane of the planet's orbit with that of the ecliptic. To avoid confusion, only a portion of this line is represented, except in the case of Mercury's orbit.

It is obviously impossible to represent the diameter of the planets by the same scale. Even those of the giant planets Jupiter and Saturn would shrink to mere points. The same may be said of the sun itself in Plot

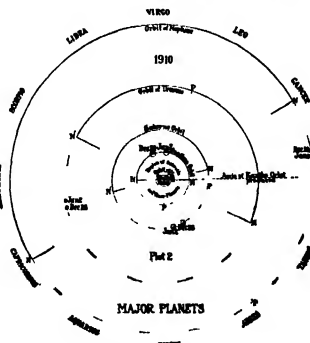


FIG. 2. PLANETARY ORBITS.

2, but in Plot 1 its diameter (864,400 miles) would be correctly represented by a measurement a little more than one-half of *c*, which is the linear eccentricity—the distance from the sun's center to the center of the earth's orbit.

The earth's mean distance from the sun (93.9 million miles) is diminished by a third every day and increased by the same amount at perihelion in January; and increased

# CURIOSITIES OF SCIENCE AND INVENTION

## A STREET RAILWAY AUTOMOBILE

A steam automobile street railway has recently been installed for regular passenger service between Mandeville and New Orleans, La. The cars are each fitted with a 55-horse-power steam engine and generator, making them practically automobiles on rails. The line is 16 miles long, and steam motive power has been installed in order to reduce the cost of maintenance. Two street automobile cars built as an experiment have proven so successful that more are now under construction. Each car is built to seat twenty-two people, and the expense of maintaining the line under present power permits of a large saving over the ordinary electric street railway maintenance.



A STREET RAILWAY AUTOMOBILE

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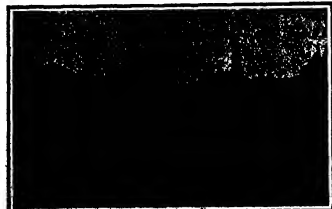
## GALILEO'S TELESCOPE

Just about three hundred years ago, Galileo exhibited a telescope which he had used in studying the moon and planets. This was not the first telescope



THE FIRST ASTRONOMICAL TELESCOPE.

ever built, but it was however the first telescope to be used for astronomical purposes. The accompanying engraving shows how the telescope looked. This type of telescope differs from the present astronomical type in using a concave instead of a convex eyepiece, so that by a combination of but two lenses, the object glass and eyepiece, he was able to view objects right



STREETCAR PHOTOGRAPHED BY HENRY-DANIEL STRECHER.

side up, whereas in the present astronomical telescopes objects are inverted. The Galilean type of telescope is now used in the ordinary opera glasses. With this crude instrument Galileo was able to establish the fact that the moon is a round body with its surface broken by mountains, that the Milky Way is composed of countless stars, that Venus and Mercury have phases like the moon, and that Jupiter has a number of satellites (four were discovered by Galileo). To him Saturn appeared to be a triple planet. This puzzling phenomenon was explained fifty years later by Huygens, who discovered that the planet was surrounded by a flat ring.

## AN EGG WITH A TAIL.

Occasionally, for one reason or another, a hen will lay a "soft-shelled" egg, but one with a tail, like that shown in the accompanying photograph, is decidedly unusual. This egg was evidently the last of

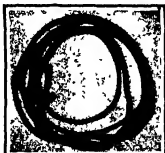


AN EGG WITH A TAIL.

a clutch, and, though the hen lacked material for a shell, she had a surplus for the shell lining, or egg pod.

## A FROZEN TELEPHONE CABLE

The accompanying photograph shows the effect of ice pressure on a twenty-five pair lead telephone cable. The cable was located in a three-inch iron pipe, and was run underground for fifty feet between the terminal pole and the manhole in the street. Owing to a fault in the construction of the lateral, the pipe did not drain into the manhole, which allowed water to collect in the pipe for a distance of about twenty feet.



THE EFFECT OF ICE OF A TELEPHONE CABLE.

Last winter being an extremely cold one caused this water to freeze in the pipe, the pressure crushing the cable out flat. In several places there was a quantity of small stones and gravel in the iron pipe and so strong was the pressure of the ice in the pipe that these stones were forced into the armor of the cable as though driven in by a hammer. The wires had the usual paper insulation, and the extreme pressure forced the wire through the paper at every twist of the conductor. The cable was dented and crushed for a distance of twenty feet.

## WUPON SCOOTER.

Some years ago an amphibious craft was invented at Great South Bay, Long Island which could be maneuvered on ice as well as in the water. It was in reality an iceboat provided with a flat-bottomed hull which would float the craft in case of encountering a blow-hole or break in the ice. The sport proved to be very fascinating, particularly the peculiar sensation of plunging off the ice into the water and then climbing back again. The "scooter," as this craft is named, is now undergoing further development. Instead of depending upon the sail for power, Mr. Nat Roe of Port Republic, E. I., has equipped his scooter with a 15-horse-power motor and a spurred wheel, which dips into the ice and drives the craft along. He claims to have traveled over the ice at a rate of 50 miles per hour. There is no means for propelling the boat while in the

water, but the sport consists in leaping gaps in the ice by the sheer momentum of the craft. He has leaped gaps of over a hundred feet in this way. The motor scooter possesses an advantage over the motor sled, because it cannot sink in case of breaking through the ice, and over the sail scooter in the fact that under its own power it can be taken home over snow-covered roads when the owner knows tired of the sport.

## LARGEST PROJECTILE IN THE WORLD

The accompanying illustration is of more than ordinary interest from the fact that it shows the largest



LARGEST PROJECTILE IN THE WORLD

and heaviest projectile in the world being the huge 1600, armor-piercing shell fired from the United States government's great 14-inch rifle. This giant shell and powder can be considered two of the most destructive and deadly engines of warfare in existence. The monster 16-inch rifle the only one built so far is now at the Sandy Hook Proving Grounds, and has only been fired a few times. The huge shell of steel can be hurled a distance of 20 miles or more and weighs 2,500 pounds. The powder charge is nearly 500 pounds. The cost of firing one shot reaches in the neighborhood of \$100. It is not probable that this type of gun will be used but rather the 14-inch for the main coast defenses of the Panama Canal and possibly the Philippines. This formidable and long range weapon though capable of firing so from inland a projectile is too costly and fires too slowly for modern warfare.

## INTERLOCKED MOOSE ANTILERS

A curious relic of a fatal battle between two bull moose is shown in the accompanying illustration. The battle was fought in the Kiwanis Park, Alaska a few years ago. An Indian was attracted to the spot by the noise of the encounter, and on seeing the two antagonists he found that one had broken its neck during the struggle and lay dead on the ground while the other, partly exhausted was making a desperate effort to free his horns. After killing, the latter moose the Indian tried in every way to separate the antlers but found this to be impossible. The interlocked antlers are now to be exhibited in the collection of heads and horns in the new Administration Building of the New York Zoological Park. The larger set of horns has a spread of 93½ inches and the other of 62 inches.



RELIC OF A BATTLE BETWEEN TWO BULL MOOSE

# THE DESIGN FOR THE NEW QUEBEC BRIDGE

COMMONPLACE IN APPEARANCE AND COSTLY TO BUILD

The collapse of the huge cantilever bridge at Quebec on August 29th 1907, was at once the greatest and most fatal catastrophe in the history of bridge construction since the middle ages. When that colossal structure broke down under its own weight and disappeared from sight in the St. Lawrence River more than eight hundred lives and many millions of dollars were lost in the space of a few brief minutes. Naturally the disaster caused a great loss of prestige to the engineers who were connected with the work, and discredited their engineering as carried on in the Western Hemisphere before the type of the whole world the great prominence of this bridge was due to the fact that it embodied the longest span (1,760 feet) yet attempted. This was longer by 90 feet than either of the two large spans (1,710 feet) of the great Forth Bridge in Scotland, which is at present the largest bridge in existence.

An investigation of the facts by a Royal Commission revealed as the cause of the collapse faulty design of the compression members. It was ascertained that the

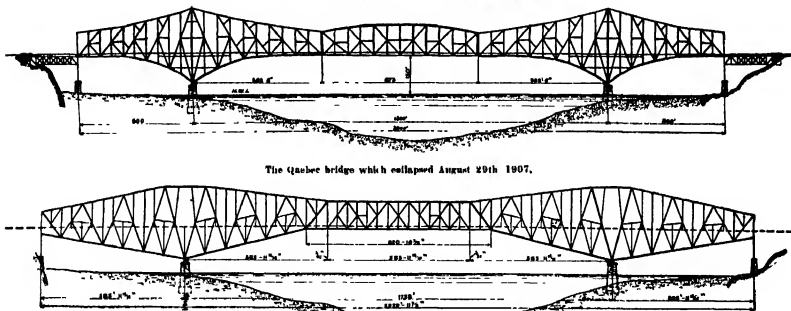
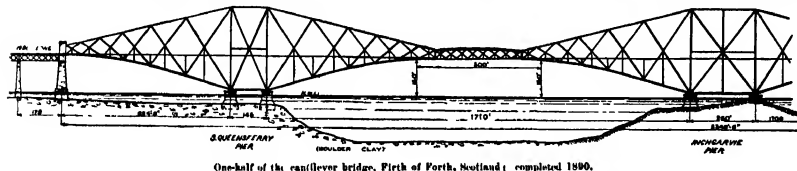
slightest attempt to combine the beautiful with the useful. The faulty structure which collapsed had at least the redeeming feature that the outlines were structurally and mathematically correct, and although the Forth Bridge has been made the subject of much criticism by the artist and the architect, it must be regarded as having distinct claims to beauty when compared as on the accompanying page, with the new plans for the Quebec Bridge.

It would seem, however, that the Board has some doubts as to the merits of its own work, for it now invites competitive plans from contractors which are to be filed by May 1st, 1910, the plans to be drawn at the contractor's own expense. But if the Board has taken eighteen months' time and spent \$150,000 to produce the present plans, the public will naturally ask, how can the Board expect responsible firms to furnish them with new plans in one-sixth the time and for nothing?

The lay of the land at the Quebec crossing is such as to make it almost certain that a thoroughly rigid

pressure during high gales, and particularly in this position necessary to insure safety during erection. The bridge which failed was only 67 feet wide, and this small width was a large contributing cause to the twisting of the structure during erection, which preceded its collapse. This important fact does not seem to have been given sufficient consideration, for the new structure has a width of only 86 feet, or one-fifth of the proposed length of span of 1,766 feet, as against one-fourth in the Forth Bridge.

It may be claimed that experience with American practice in cantilever railroad bridges has shown a proportion of 1 to 20 to be sufficient, but it is a question how far their immunity from disaster during erection was due to the fortunate circumstance that no strong winds were experienced—such as frequently occur at the Forth Bridge, and may occur at Quebec—which would have twisted its trusses out of shape before they had been connected up. Moreover, we believe it is a fact that there is not a large cantilever railroad bridge on this continent over which trains



The unsightly structure now proposed by the Canadian government for the Quebec bridge.

## THE DESIGN FOR THE NEW QUEBEC BRIDGE

management of the work was so badly organized, that the blame could not be definitely fixed to any one quarter, and in the end the Canadian government had to assume the whole money loss. The work was eventually taken over by that government, and it was decided to rebuild the structure. For this purpose a commission of three engineers was appointed, and it was publicly announced that the new bridge would be the finest and strongest structure of the kind ever seen.

The Commission was appointed about eighteen months ago. In the interim the preparation of the plans has cost about \$150,000, and as the result of its eighteen months' work the Commission has produced the very commonplace design, herewith illustrated, regarding which there is a general professional opinion that both structurally and aesthetically it is distinctly inferior to the Forth Bridge, which was completed nearly twenty years ago.

If the bridge is built according to the proposed plans, it will not only be of inferior merit, considered from the bridge engineer's standpoint, but will also be the ugliest bridge of monumental proportions among those hitherto proposed or built. It presents the appearance of a monotonous mesh of triangles and straight lines. From abutment to abutment there is not one graceful line in the whole structure, not the

suspension bridge could be built more cheaply, more quickly and with less risk of failure during erection. On the other hand, if a bridge of the cantilever type is selected, it should be one of the first duties of the Board to see that one of the contractors comes to the weakness of the bridge that failed, namely, its extremely narrow width, is removed. But, so far from doing this the authorities have not only prescribed certain limitations of width, but they have actually contracted for the new stone piers upon this restricted basis, and it is a fact that the width is such as would put a serious limit upon any bridge engineer who attempted to design either a cantilever or suspension bridge with the necessary cross-sectional width to give the proper rigidity during erection, and subsequently when express trains are crossing the structure. Those of us who knew the late Sir Benjamin Baker, the builder of the Forth Bridge, and were familiar with his cautious methods, will agree that, could he have been consulted, it is more than probable that he would have disapproved of the present design, as he would surely have condemned the old one had it been submitted to him. In his Forth Bridge the width at the base of the towers is 180 feet for a span of 1,760 feet which gives a ratio of 1 to 14. This large width at the towers is necessary to insure the stability and lateral rigidity of the entire structure under wind

dare run faster than 25 miles an hour. The vibrations, due to the narrow width, would become excessive, and at faster speeds would create danger of derailment. On the other hand, the advantages of great width in proportion to length are shown by the fact that the fast and heavy express trains in the north of Scotland pass continually and with absolute safety over the Forth Bridge at their full speed of from 50 to 60 miles an hour.

Another element in the specifications upon which bids are invited which is puzzling engineers and contractors is that the maximum height of the towers has been limited to 390 feet above the masonry. It really would seem as though the board of engineers who drew up the specifications were desirous to put weight into the new bridge merely for the sake of having it there, for it is well understood that the stresses in the top and bottom members of a truss, and therefore the amount of steel necessary to meet these stresses, increase inversely as the depth, and hence the shallower the bridge, the greater will be its weight. In view of these facts, it is extraordinary that in the specifications the maximum height of the towers above the masonry should be limited to 390 feet. This height in the Forth Bridge is 350 feet, and in the Quebec Bridge which fell it was 514 feet. The

(Continued on page 149.)







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(Continued from page 150)

makes a very striking appearance. Mr. Pittman has already made a number of short flights in which he was able to take a very considerable amount of distance of about 100 feet in the air in very easy and so far has shown excellent stability. On one occasion he whirled completely around with the vertical rudder was turned to sharply and he was able to get back to normal without being disturbed. The running gear was broken and will have to be made somewhat stronger, but otherwise the machine has shown itself to be very strong and well constructed. The novel idea of wing tips is very interesting and quite different from the system of varying the planes used by the Wright brothers, and from the first trial flight at least they appear to be fairly effective. The two extended flights have been made however, can their true value be determined.

## SMOKLESS POWDER

(Continued from page 118)

dry in some ways—the cotton being dried, powdered in centrifugal wringers or washed in those in which clothes are washed. The atmosphere is intensely arid, and the stranger coughs in the biting cold air, to which the throats of the operatives seem to be indifferent. When the cotton has soaked sufficiently, it shows signs of heating by emitting a dense brownish smoke. It is then tumbled into vats of running water, and there, "drowned before being wrung out in another mechanical wringer. The cotton, before being heated, seems an adhesive in fact, but granular or porous when it is subjected to quantity and value as a result of the new depend upon the thoroughness with which all traces of the transforming agent are extracted from the "fibre," as it is commonly called.

To this end, the "press" is next put into open tubs loaded upon a flat car and carried in steaming tanks where for 24 hours the pulp is subjected to the major part of the slugging with water. We know we are dealing now with an extremely high quality of paper, as evidenced by the sharp reports that come from under the car wheels as they pass over the rails. The pulp is then dumped into the tubs of nitric acid. Next the nitric acid is pumped into the pulping house, where it is pumped and pushed like the materials used in papermaking. The water is cleaned out and after twenty or thirty hours work the pulp is dumped into the tubs free of acid. These various operations do not end the nitrating. The chemical metamorphosis accomplished in the solution by the acid is permanent, and the boiling and washings were only to remove the acid. The pulp is now put through a "reaming machine" coming from the rollers in flakes containing about 40 per cent of

notary. "Thank it flows to the distill-  
 ing apparatus, and the steam of the  
 alcohol is condensed in the water-  
 cooling of the still, and the alcohol  
 of the still is collected in the  
 successive applications of pressure, and  
 finally, by the use of alcohol which drives  
 the alcohol out of the still, and the  
 amount of the spirit which is formed  
 is added to the alcohol which is added  
 to the still. After half an hour's work-  
 ing, the material resembles damp, cracked  
 crumbs. Chemically the process is  
 simple, and the material is just what  
 change, requiring only the proper amount  
 of pressure to produce homogeneity. The  
 "cotton" for such it is, is then pressed  
 into sheets, and the sheets are then  
 suggest soft rubber and are duly resur-  
 face. The stuff is no longer white but  
 looks like styropy maple sugar. The  
 rubber-colored cards are then subjected  
 to the same process, and the material  
 forced through steel rollers, where the  
 it issues in cords like more perfect  
 Again, for the sake of more perfect uni-  
 formity, the material is then pressed  
 peep cake, and then the plastic mass is  
 (Continued on page 162)

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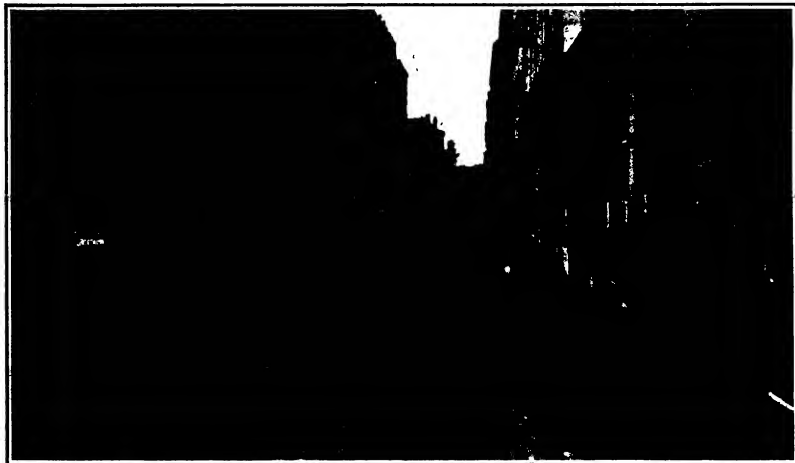
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THE GREAT FLOOD OF PARIS.—[See page 164.]

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SECRETARY MEYER'S PLAN FOR THE REORGANIZATION  
OF THE NAVY

THAT one of the first acts of Mr. Meyer on assuming the extraordinary office and responsible position of Secretary of the Navy, would be to make a thorough investigation of conditions with a view to finding that very complicated department upon a basis of efficiency and economy, was inevitable. As everyone must have foreseen who is familiar with the excellent work of reorganization which he achieved while holding the position of Post master general.

The changes introduced by Mr. Meyer are necessarily supplemental to the work of his predecessor Mr. Newberry, who had furnished and put into effect a system of consolidation. In the brief period of the operation had shown excellent results. Mr. Meyer has assumed that the changes which he has instituted in the Newberry plan have been made not for the purpose of revolution, but rather of qualifying the work of consolidation inaugurated by his predecessor. The essential changes involved in Mr. Meyer's plan are summarized under the following heads:

- (1) The provision of a permanent office (the Secretary) on subjects within the groups into which duties of the department logically fall.
- (2) The grouping of the Bureau into two divisions of material and personnel according to the nature of their duties.
- (3) The establishment of a Division of Operations of the Fleet.
- (4) The establishment of a comprehensive inspection system of a permanent organization whose members shall be periodically changed who will come from the active fleet and be conversant with the latest ships and the modern methods of drill and organizational action.
- (5) The establishment of a modern and efficient post-keeping system in the Navy Department and of navy yards.
- (6) The separation of navy yard work into the two material divisions of hull and machinery.

(7) He intends to reorganize the commands and plans of navy yards shall be selected for their knowledge and experience and that their tenure of office shall be long enough to insure continuous administrative policy.

The Scientific American has before it the printed record of the hearing of the Secretary and various Bureau (before the House Naval Committee) authorized to consider the proposed reorganization, after giving the same a most careful reading, we have come to the conclusion that with one very serious exception, the measures proposed by Secretary Meyer are well adapted to promote that consolidation which Mr. Newberry began and which the present Secretary is endeavoring to place upon a lasting workable basis. The appointment of four aides, independent of the Bureau, whose duties will be seeking for advice on the question of material that is ships, engine yards, etc., the Secretary should have as his aide the Chief or some high ranking Naval Constructor, well versed in training and experience in naval construction, to advise upon these subjects. A proportion of three lies officers to one staff officer among the aides would give a fair representation of both branches of the service, and would put the Secretary adequately in touch with the

whole range of active work in his Department.

The feature of Secretary Meyer's plan which is considered to be open to very grave question is the proposal to separate the navy yard work into divisions of hull and machinery, with a separate and independent manager for each for the change involves the division of one important object of the Newberry plan as affecting the navy yards, namely, the economy of efficiency, and the avoidance of confusion and delay, by placing the whole of the work affecting the construction of the ship in charge of the officers of a single corps with a number of that corps as general work managers of the yard. Mr. Meyer recognizes that a navy yard is a military establishment and must be under military government but this condition was not under the Newberry plan by placing at the head of the yard a commandant who is always a line officer of high rank. Under him (came the manager, a naval constructor, whose executive powers were recognized as covering not the military, but the industrial side of the work. In view of this distinction, we fall to see how the management of the yard as to its non-military and purely industrial features by a staff officer of the naval construction corps is in any possible sense a violation of that law of Congress, according to which a staff officer cannot exercise military command over any other branch of his own service. Under the former Newberry plan, the (line) officers of the Engineering Corps, who were temporarily assigned to the steam engineering department at the navy yard were subject to the naval constructor manager, merely in the industrial and not in the military sense.

If it is advisable for economy and efficiency and the consensus of evidence is overwhelming on this point, that the navy yards should be under a single industrial management and that this management should rest in the naval construction corps, and if in such an arrangement any legal question is involved as to the right of the construction manager to exercise non-military authority over engineer officers of the line who may be temporarily assigned to duty at the yard, then the answer to the law is modified the better for the interests of the navy, and of the American people as a whole.

If it be asked why both hull and machinery should be placed under the control of a single head, and that (1) that of the hull constructor or (2) that of the machinery are two very subdivisions of one organic whole, and that the two are so greatly interdependent as to make it necessary that their design, construction and management should be under the management of a single corps, who are qualified for the work by training, knowledge and practical experience. Now, we cannot but admit that the navy yards are a very complex construction, that the man body of men who combine the necessary knowledge of naval architecture and steam and electrical engineering to qualify them for the work of the construction and repair both of the hull and the machinery is the corps of naval constructors. Unfortunately, much of the evidence which has been given before the committee has been directed to proving that the naval constructor is ignorant of steam and electrical engineering and therefore not qualified to take charge of the shops devoted to these branches at the navy yards. That nothing is further from the truth is shown by the following consideration of their training and experience.

In the first place the naval constructors are the pick of the Naval Academy graduates. They are selected for the highest honors in the academy and a rule have been taken from the first two or three. In making the selection in addition to their academic standing careful consideration is made of their general aptitude for the service, and of their aptitude for the handling of men, and for general administration. The principle of selection is the same as in the selection of those that are highly specialized and most efficient body of professional men, the corps of engineers of the army. After their education as line officers at sea and at the Naval Academy, they are sent to the Massachusetts Institute of Technology a post-graduate course in naval construction, which is the most thorough of any in the world.

Furthermore (and we cannot too strongly insist that the impression that the naval constructor is not a qualified steam engineer is absolutely erroneous) the course at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology involves also thorough instruction in the fundamentals of electrical engineering during which the prospective constructors are given a course of practical training in the machine shops and laboratories of the institution.

The life work of the naval constructor will be done on shore and mainly at the various navy yards, and by virtue of his long residence at these yards, or as instructor at the various private shipbuilding yards, he acquires an ever-increasing and most valuable knowledge of the operation of these great industrial plants. Future promotion and distinction for him lie along these lines. There is every incentive for him to become thoroughly proficient.

While the line officer, however, into whose hands Mr. Meyer's plan would commit the construction of all electrical and steam machinery, and the management of the large and elaborate plants at the navy yards where this work is done, the case is entirely different. After his four years' course at Annapolis, the prospective naval constructor must spend the next several years of spending practically all of his time at sea, and, naturally, his sympathies, interests, and above all his ambitions, will be connected with sea duty. An assignment for service ashore, or even a break in the routine of his chosen life work. If the line officer is an engineer officer, he will enlarge at sea his knowledge of the care and operation of a ship's machinery, but even by the great part of his time spent ashore, he is conversant with the work of the navy yards, and of the opportunity for becoming acquainted with the complicated and difficult work of managing such large industrial concerns as the steam machinery shops of the navy yards are, in the nature of things, very limited. His work is to run not to build, the engineer, just as it is the work of the captain of the ship to run and not to build the hull.

Even when the line officer is ashore, his interests and future aims are still upon the sea, and, as a rule, he is only too glad when the next assignment for sea duty comes. Proof of this is found in the fact that during the past six years there have been at our own leading naval yards no less than 29 commanders and 41 captains of the yard. Evidently, the sea-going officer cannot too quickly get back to his natural sphere of service.

If there were available at the present time a corps of engineering officers who, like the naval constructors, had been specially trained for shore duty in the management of the machinery shops, etc., at the navy yards, we would have no reason to object to the particular part of Mr. Meyer's plan, but outside of a few of the older engineers, trained under the system which obtained before reorganization, no such body of men is available. Furthermore, it is our conviction that were such a body existent it would still make for economy and efficiency, if both hull and machinery were placed under the single management of a naval constructor.

That part of the Newberry plan which affected the navy yards was giving very promising results at the time Mr. Meyer took office. We have little doubt that his determination to place under a single management, governed largely by certain alleged instances of inefficiency of the naval constructors in their management of the main line shops which were supplied to the Secretary, most of them under the supervision of the Engineer in Chief. The testimony before the House Naval Committee now before us however shows that a subsequent investigation of the navy yards has cleared from the commanders of the engine yards (all of them line officers) a complete disapproval of the charges as made—a very gratifying vindication of the work of the naval constructors in this particular regard. We cannot but feel that with such evidence before him, the Secretary will be disposed to reconsider that part of his otherwise excellent reforms, which propose to separate hull and machinery and that he will allow the Newberry plan of a single management, which is to further demonstrate the economy and all round efficiency of which it gave in the few months of its operation such great promise.

## ELECTROLYTIC REMOVAL OF GREASE.

AN electrolytic method of removing grease from machinery has been introduced in Germany. It can be applied to the removal of metallic deposits by employing it on a cathode in a hot solution of potash or soda lye. It was supposed that the alkali metal salt free of the cathode transformed the fatty matter into a soluble form. It was shown, however, that the fatty matter was not removed, but that the substance which cannot be separated, such as machine oil, paraffine oil and paraffin, are removed very quickly by the current, and he explains this fact by mechanical action caused by bubbles of hydrogen which come off at the cathode. This action is produced only when the fatty matter is liquid. If the temperature of the bath is too low so that the grease is solidified, the removal is very slow and is incomplete. He operates with a moderately concentrated solution of carbonate of potash heated between 80 and 100 deg. C. The anodes are made of sheet iron or carbon plates. When a piece of sheet iron is placed with oil or paraffine is dipped into this bath it remains covered with oil ten minutes after immersion when removed. The bath is then renewed, the current all traces of oil disappear in a few minutes.

To permit two steamers to pass from the Wisconsin River to the Mississippi River, near Prairie du Chien, Wis., a railway bridge on the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railway was raised by breakdowns caused a few weeks ago. The bridge is a trestle bridge, 1,000 feet long, and the two steamers were sent down to enter service on another route. The railway crossed the river near its mouth, and a 60-foot span was raised about 6 feet to clear the steamers' funnels.

## ENGINEERING.

**George W. Melville**, Engineer in Chief of the United States Navy, states that in every season it is believed that two ships of the navy will be fitted with the turbine reduction gear which he illustrated on the front page of our last issue. It is proposed to re-equip the "Bathurst" with turbines of 13,000-horsepower and equip one of the new colliers with turbines of 6,000-horsepower, both employing this reduction gear.

The number of persons killed in train accidents during the months of July, August, and September, 1909, as shown in reports made by the railroad companies to the Interstate Commerce Commission, was 134, and of injured, 5,753. Accidents of other kinds including those sustained by employees while at work and by passengers in getting on or off the cars, etc., bring the total number of casualties up to 20,093 (1,652 killed and 18,241 injured).

The **Shoshone dam** in Wyoming, which forms the leading feature of one of the projects of the Reclamation Service, has recently been completed. It is built of concrete, and measures 328.4 feet from foundation to the crest. It is 115 feet long at the top and 85 feet long at the bottom, where its thickness is 108 feet. The reservoir back of the dam, which has a capacity of 466,000 acre feet, will serve to irrigate 130,000 acres of land situated about 75 miles east of the Yellowstone National Park.

The grand total of canal excavation at Panama for the month of December was 3,811,681 cubic yards. This is 343,398 cubic yards more than the total for November, but 1,646 cubic yards less than the highest record made in March 1909. Of the grand total, 1,455,611 cubic yards was dry excavation, removed principally by steam shovels. The dredges removed 1,356,070 cubic yards in addition to the amount pumped into Gatun dam by the suction dredges engaged on that work.

In recognition of the culmination of his life work in the discovery of the North Pole, the Senate has passed a bill making Commander Robert E. Peary a rear admiral on the retired list. This signal recognition of the explorer followed closely upon the recent honoring awarded over by the Governor of the State of New York at which Peary received a grant of \$10,000 which, by the way, he immediately turned over to the proposed American expedition for the discovery of the South Pole.

**Major Mason M. Patrick** of the United States army speaking on the subject of the construction of an artificial island and additional anchorage for the entrance to Chesapeake Bay, drew attention to the fact that the two largest and fastest merchant vessels afloat today could each carry 10,000 men with all their armaments of war, and if necessary could land them on our coast in less than one week and he also stated that more than one foreign power possesses a fleet of swift transports which can carry at one time over 100,000 men.

**Secretary Meyer** has asked for a large appropriation for the enlargement of the government drydock to help the big battleships now under construction. He also asks for the construction of a \$2,000,000 drydock at Norfolk, for an additional \$1,000,000 for increasing the new dock at the New York navy yard to a length of 700 feet, for an additional \$1,500,000 for increasing the Puget Sound dock to a width of 110 feet, and for the enlargement of the width of the Pearl Harbor dock, Hawaii, to the same width, at an increased cost of \$450,000.

The new terminal station of the Pennsylvania Rail Road Company at 33rd Street and Seventh Avenue, Manhattan, is so far advanced that it will be practically completed by the end of next month. The first service to be put in operation will consist of multiple-unit, standard size, electric train running to Jamaica, Long Island, over a four-track road, which will soon be increased by the addition of two more tracks. This will be followed by the opening of the through express route to the West, which will be operated by the 4,000-horse-power electric locomotives illustrated in our issue of December 18th, 1909.

**Wesley Jones** with us to-day, he would be greatly interested in two instances of rapid travel recorded during the past week. The first was the trip from San Francisco west a wayer by covering the distance in two hours and thirty-five minutes less than ten days, the trip being made by the "Mauretania" of New York, the British Company Limited to Chicago, and the Overland Limited to San Francisco. A passenger from Lima, Peru, in making a hurried trip in response to a call to London, left the steamer in the harbor at Panama, crossed by the Panama Railroad, made close connections with a steamer for New York; and caught the "Mauretania" for England. If the ship makes an average passage, the whole trip will have been covered in 19 days.

## AERONAUTICS.

The first exclusively aeronautic show yet to be held in America is open at present at the Mechanics Building at Boston. A score of full-sized representative aeroplanes of all types, together with a large number of models, are on view. Several competitions for models will be held, and some of the gliders and motor-driven aeroplanes may be tried out upon the lot of the late in Franklin Field. This exhibition will give one a good idea of the state of aeronautics in the United States to-day.

At the 10th instant, Wilbur and Orville Wright were presented with the Langley medals of the Smithsonian Institution by Chief Justice Fuller at Washington. Dr. Alexander Graham Bell and Senator Henry Chittenden made brief addresses. Wilbur Wright announced that as soon as he and his brother got their American company under way they expect to devote their time to research work in aviation. The two gold medals were designed by J. C. Champlain, a member of the French Academy, the reverse being from the seal of the Institution, which was designed by St. Gaudens.

Paulhan has expressed a willingness to fly in the vicinity of New York. If Currier or some other interested person will have that Institution displayed with his now hangs over the heads of aviators using warplane plane or biplane wing tip. His brilliant success in California leads one to hope that his desire may be gratified in the interests of a sport which the United States in general and the East in particular knows unaccountably little. If Paulhan really gives an exhibition of these matters he will do much to show the New York interest in aviation. The Hudson-Pulton flights were after all a fiasco, and yet they raised New York to an intense pitch of excitement. Paulhan ought to do better.

The first week of February the mill of the Wright brothers against Paulhan for an injunction restraining him from giving exhibitions in his biplane flights in the vicinity of New York City. Judge Hand in the Circuit Court in New York City Judge Hand has stated great interest in the case, and his decision is awaited with interest. It is uncertain whether he will grant a preliminary injunction or Judge Hand did in the Circuit Court in New York City. In denying the writ of the Wrights upon the flight on November 19th, Mr. E. R. Newell asserted that "Wright & R. Montgomery's patent which antedates the flight patent, covers the same system of gliding, starting as the Wrights in using their system and is further says that the machine as built to date does not correspond with the patent. A full report of the Wrights' flight and of the flight of the Wrights' flight appears in the current *Scientific American*.

As soon as he had finished flight at Los Angeles, Charles K. Hamilton went to San Diego where he made a number of daring flights with his Curtiss biplane. On January 12th, after starting from the water tank near the Hotel Del Coronado Hamilton took his view over the ocean so far that he disappeared from view for ten minutes. When he reappeared he came from a different direction. In the first flight he covered about 10 miles, and in the second one 15. The wind was blowing at times as high as 20 miles an hour. After climbing up to a height of about 800 feet Hamilton stopped his motor and made a wonderful long straight glide to earth. This is probably a record performance, certainly the longest glide ever made in America. A week later at Bakersfield Cal. he made two excellent flights under difficult conditions. In his first flight, half mile high, he flew about the town and out over the desert and adjoining fields, finally landing smoothly at the starting point. His mastery of the biplane seemed complete.

Subsequent to the Los Angeles aviation meeting Mr. Paulhan made excellent exhibition flights at San Francisco, Denver, and New Orleans. At San Francisco on January 24th he made several flights in a strong wind. The last and highest of these was 12 minutes duration, was made after sunset. Two days later he rose to a height of 1,200 feet in a flight of 31 minutes duration. On February 1st, at Denver, he was mobbed by a crowd of 50,000 people eager to see him fly. After three preliminary attempts, he finally left the ground and made two circuits of the course at Overland Park. The next day he made a 10-mile flight, the first in driving rain and storm. The next day he ran his biplane through snow three inches deep, and when he alighted, the plane and struts of the machine were in many places covered with a white powder. Paulhan himself was suffering from the bitter cold. Previous to this long flight, he made a preliminary flight of 8 miles. On February 4th, after setting the Park successfully a dozen times, Paulhan twice made a 10-mile flight in the distance of his disposal. The first time one of the wheels of his machine struck the fence and was knocked off while the second time the machine crashed into the fence and was demolished. Paulhan was unhurt, but several spectators were injured.

## SCIENCE.

The **American Museum of Natural History** in New York City has constituted William Brewster as moving a statue of Commander Robert E. Peary for the Museum. The statue is to be life size and of marble.

In a bulletin issued by the United States Department of Agriculture Mr. Ned Doernum writes on methods of destroying the nests of the House Sparrow. The destructiveness of the sparrow is overwhelming, for which reason some means should be adopted to check the spread of the bird. Mr. Doernum recommends the destruction of the nests from March 1st to May 1st, throughout the breeding season. Since the number of English sparrows could be reduced without resorting to shot poison or traps.

The Smithsonian Institution has received a letter from Mr. J. H. Henshaw dated December 15th 1909 from Nairobi informing the secretary of that Institution that his expedition has finished its work in British East Africa. The collections made in that country aggregate 1,463 animals which include many large and small birds, reptiles and batrachians, fresh water and marine fish. Considering the fact that probably over 95 per cent of these animals are the duplicates in the natural history museums of this country and of Europe ex-President Roosevelt seems to have been doing much unnecessary killing.

The Radium Institute of America has been incorporated. Its objects are to conduct researches in the use of radium and uranium in the interests of science and humanity and to maintain a chemical laboratory library, meeting room and office and to acquire and hold patents and rights in the use of radium and properties pertaining to radium. The headquarters of the Institute will be located in New York. The twelve incorporators are: Mr. Robert Abbot, Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, Mr. R. C. Chandler, Dr. E. C. R. Dean, William J. G. Dean, William H. Haddock, Edward Hendrick, Hugo Lohrer, Dr. Wiley Meyer, George B. Peckham, Hugo Schwabauer, and Edgar F. Smith of the University of Pennsylvania.

An expedition to observe and photograph Halley's comet from the Hawaiian Islands is to be sent out by the Astronomical and Astrophysical Society of America. In view of the possible perturbations arising from the close approach of the comet to the earth on May 1st and to Venus on May 16th to 18th meridian observations are especially desired during that period in which the comet is sufficiently bright for that purpose. The chief astronomer of the expedition will afford an unusual opportunity for a study of the physical condition of comets. The comets take great interest in the sun and in the study of maximum brightness. The expedition is limited to 100 days, 30 days per annum. Widely extended co-operation will be required throughout the whole world if a continuous photographic record is to be even remotely realized. The American Museum of Natural History has been presented with a life-size marble statue of Nerrie K. Jones by J. Pierpont Morgan, John Pierpont Morgan, Cleveland H. Dodge, Charles J. Fisher, J. H. Haddock, Joseph H. Haddock, and others. At the unveiling of the statue addresses were delivered by Prof. O'Brien (who succeeded Mr. Jones as president of the Museum) Mayor Gaynor and Joseph H. Haddock.

Commander Robert E. Peary has contributed \$10,000 to a fund for the equipping of an American expedition to the South Pole. The check for the amount of his contribution had been handed to him by Hugh Hughes on behalf of the committee of New York as a testimony of appreciation of his achievements in finding the North Pole, and the Metropolitan Opera House was crowded with people who had come to take part in what the *Washington Post* terms a "national testimonial to the explorer."

There is a gas cone (recently discovered in the glass house by Ramsey which is remarkable for its chemical properties but though devoid of the vital properties it possesses a very curious odor and property which was discovered by J. Norman Mills. When a sealed glass tube containing mercury in an atmosphere of neon at low pressure is shaken it becomes strongly luminous. Similar tubes have been obtained which are substituted for neon but the light emitted by neon in these conditions is especially bright. If the shaking is repeated at intervals during two or three hours, the intensity of the light increases and thereafter remains constant. The original luminous intensity can be restored by passing an electric discharge through the tube. If one end of the tube is heated to 750 deg. F. and the other end is connected to a gas atom in liquid air and the tube is then allowed to return to the ordinary atmospheric temperature, the part which has been heated glows much more brightly than before. The tube is made of glass and is sealed by substituting a tube of fused quartz for the glass tube. G. Claude is endeavoring to utilize this remarkable property of neon as a source of light and claims to have constructed a lamp of about an efficiency equal to about 1 watt per candle power.

# DID GREAT BRITAIN HAVE THE FIRST "DREADNOUGHT"?

## THE "ROYAL SOVEREIGN" OF 1862

### BY PERCIVAL A. HISLAM

THE *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN* for November 20th, 1909, contained a description by Mr. William Forester Wadsworth of the "R. S. S. Roanoke," a converted steam frigate, which he claimed to have been the original prototype of the Dreadnought. The date of the conversion of the "Roanoke" from the frigate into the three-turreted ironclad was 1862, but England, the birthplace of the twentieth century Dreadnought, has a similar instance to the "Roanoke," but which dates from the previous year—1862.

The "Royal Sovereign" as this ship was named, was built as a three-decked sailing ship of 3,144 tons and 120 guns and in 1860 had been fitted with engines of 400 horsepower. The sides of the "Royal Sovereign" after conversion were composed of three feet of solid stanchion strengthened internally with diagonal iron bands and clothed externally to some distance below the waterline with  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch rolled armor plate. On each iron plating was laid upon the deck a beam, and over the iron plating was laid the deck proper, consisting of 6-inch and 8-inch oak planking. From the sides of the ship the deck sloped upward to the outer circumference of the turret, which thus appeared like circular forts on the apex of a glacis.

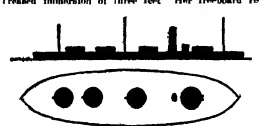
The following description is taken from a contemporary account in the London "Times" newspaper: "Rising out from the 'Royal Sovereign's' upper deck, we find that her light iron bulwarks, 3 feet 6 inches in depth are thrown down outward on hinged stanchions. On the rest of the deck stand a dock platform for the officer of the watch or lookout man. The single-gun turrets are 4 feet 3 inches above the deck."

It was claimed at the time that the method of mounting and working the guns in the "Royal Sovereign" was superior to anything which had then been applied in any American turret ship. In American designs the turret rested upon the upper deck, and was thus liable to easy dislodgment, but in the English vessel the base of the turret was on the lower deck, and the deck was therefore much less likely to be disabled by a hit. The American method resulted in the turret being tilted back from the deck, while in the "Royal Sovereign" only five feet or four feet three inches, as

the case might be, was exposed to the enemy's fire. Further, the latter ship's turrets could be worked by poles of the "Royal Sovereign" reached only just above the top of the funnel. In freboard there was little to choose between the two, while in the method of placing the turret the British ship was decidedly superior.

Much, therefore, as we owe to America in the development of modern navies, and more especially, perhaps, in the introduction of steam navigation and in the correct placing of turrets in modern battleships, I think it must be admitted that Great Britain was the first to possess a prototype of the modern "Dreadnought."

I have been unable to procure a picture of the "Royal Sovereign" for reproduction, but the accompanying elevation and plan will convey an idea of the appearance of the ship.



Converted British three-decker "Royal Sovereign" changed to an all-guns battleship in 1862.  
 WAS THIS THE FIRST "DREADNOUGHT"?

maintained at seven feet after conversion. The cost of the work was \$699,000.

The "Royal Sovereign," besides having been, at any rate, one of the prototypes of the modern "Dreadnought," is interesting as having been the first vessel in which the turret principle of Capt. Cowper Poles was put into practice. The first vessel actually built in England embodying those principles was the "Captain," an ironclad of 4,272 tons, which capsize in the Bay of Biscay on September 6th, 1870.

According to contemporary accounts the speed of the "Roanoke" was only 6 knots. This is inferior to the "Royal Sovereign" speed of 6 knots. The latter vessel again, had four turrets to the "Roanoke's" three, both ships had 14 inches of side armor in rolled plate, although up till then most American ships

had been armored on the inferior laminated system, both ships were practically equal for the three poles of the "Royal Sovereign" reached only just above the top of the funnel. In freboard there was little to choose between the two, while in the method of placing the turret the British ship was decidedly superior.

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It may be mentioned that Russia launched in 1867 the "Admiral Lazareff," a three-turreted ironclad of 3,154 tons, very similar in general design to the "Roanoke." She carried in each turret two 15-inch guns, but it was not till later to alter this to one 15-inch for each in view of the diagonal (or echelon) arrangement adopted in the British "Dreadnought" cruisers of the "Invincible" type. It is interesting also to note that Italy led the way with this system of mounting with the "Dulio" (1870), Great Britain following with the "Inferrible" in 1881, and with four other ships a few years later. The only American examples of this system of mounting were seen in the "Maine" and "Texas," the first with two 10-inch and the second with one 15-inch gun in each turret.

The arrangement of the turrets in the British "Admiral Duperre," launched in 1879. This ship had two turrets on the center line and on the same level aft, and a turret on each beam just forward of the funnels. The guns had a freboard of 4 feet 6 inches, giving them a great command of the sea. Each turret contained one gun of 15 inches caliber, and if another gun-turret turret be added forward of the two beam turrets, it will be seen that the arrangement of the "Dreadnought" is almost exactly reproduced. It is strange how often we are confronted with the fact, in reading old books and other records, that there is "nothing new under the sun."

# OTHER WORLDS IN SPACE

## BY PROF. S. A. MITCHELL, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

If one should look at the heavens on any clear moonless evening, he would see them shining with countless orbs of light apparently millions in number. It is a fact that from our earliest education we have regarded the terms "numberless as the sands of the seashore," and "countless as the stars," synonymous with quantities almost infinite, but if by the stars we mean those that can be seen by the naked eye (and the expression originated thousands of years before the invention of the telescope), our ideas have been utterly at variance with the truth. The unaided eye cannot see millions of stars as is commonly supposed, nor yet hundreds of thousands for at any one time we could count only two to three thousand separate stars, and in the whole heavens there are less than six thousand which can be seen with out a telescope. A small glass, however, increases this number largely, and with greater and greater telescopes more and more stars are brought to our ken. It is estimated that the astronomer of today can see and photograph upward of a hundred million of stars. Each of these is a sun shining by its own light, the new astronomy tells us that thousands of these suns

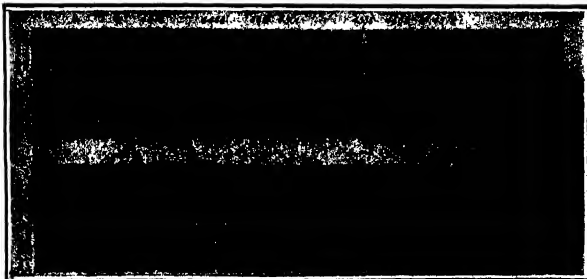
have systems around them possibly resembling our own solar system, and it is not outside the bounds of probability that many of the planets about these distant suns may be inhabited by people who live and move and think. Indeed, this earth of ours, or so much important to us, is a most insignificant speck in the almost limitless universe.

amous distances we are from them are however very small, and the change of position in the sky so slight from year to year that they could not be found with out the most careful measurements. So from this point of view the stars are fixed, and the constellations appear the same now as they did to the Chaldean scribes thousands of years ago. Still the motions are there.

The old astronomy was able to measure motions all over the sky, at right angles to our line of vision, but the new astronomy is able to supplement this by a knowledge of their movements toward us or away from us in the line of sight. The revelations of this new branch of astronomy are revolutionary in their importance, and of the greatest moment to our ideas of the universe as a whole.

The principles underlying the use of the modern spectroscopic apparatus applied to the stars are given in *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*, December 31st, 1909. There is required for this purpose a powerful telescope, and a most accurate spectroscopic attachment, which instruments must be kept absolutely uniform during the two or three hours that may be commanded while the phot-

(Continued on page 176.)



PHOTOGRAPH OF THE SPECTRA OF A STAR, JANUARY 24th AND 25th, 1906.

The upper spectrum shows a velocity of 40 miles per second away from the earth, and the lower one of 40 miles per second in the same direction.

Astronomers by their meridian circles have been able to measure the exact positions of these distant so-called "fixed" stars, and have come to the conclusion that in spite of their names, there is none of them absolutely fixed in space, i. e., without motions. The movements of these heavenly bodies at the mor-

## CONCRETE CONSTRUCTION ON THE PANAMA CANAL

HOW THE EIGHT MILLION CUBIC YARDS OF CONCRETE IS HANDLED

To the untrained eye the work which has hitherto been done on the construction of the Panama Canal necessarily appears more or less confused and chaotic. Although over one-half of the excavation has been completed, very little if any of the prism of the canal has been excavated to its finished dimensions, and the

works in the aggregate will probably represent the largest mass of masonry of any kind whatsoever hitherto placed in a single engineering work of magnitude. It is questionable whether an exception would have to be made even in the case of some of the famous masonry aqueducts built in ancient times, and the

Gatun on the Atlantic side of the Isthmus, one at Pedro Miguel and two at Miraflores on the Pacific side, and the great spillway in the center of the Gatun dam for carrying off the surplus waters. All of the locks will be 110 feet wide by 1,000 feet long with a depth over the sills of 45 feet. The three locks at



Note the wooden forms in which the walls are molded.

Building concrete side wall—Gatun Spillway.



Millions of tons of sand suspended for the concrete.

Sand cranes and pockets at Gatun.

outline of the completed work is therefore irregular and ragged.

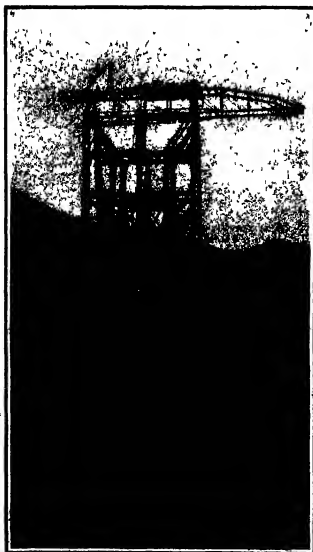
Some few months ago, however, the work of putting in the permanent concrete structures began, and from now on this great work will begin to take on definite shape and present visual evidence of its massive and permanent character.

The masonry work will not only be the largest of their kind ever built; the locks and spillways being on a scale of unprecedented proportions, but these

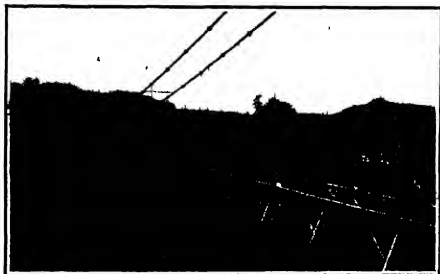
Pyramids or the Great Wall of China are not to be seriously reckoned in comparison with difficult by draught works of the character of those on the Panama Canal. In the accompanying series of photographs, which were recently taken on the Isthmus, one is able for the first time to gain some impression of the massive character of the concrete and reinforced-concrete structures the construction of which is now proceeding with gratifying rapidity.

The concrete work embraces six huge locks, three at

Gatun will form a continuous structure which, with the piers forming the approaches at each end, will have a total length of 5,000 feet, the whole work forming one huge monolithic mass of concrete. The Pedro Miguel lock with its piers will be 1,400 feet, and the two locks and piers at Miraflores will have a length of 2,800 feet. Into the construction of these locks will enter about 3,000,000 cubic yards of concrete, and of the 800,000 tons will consist of cement. The spillway through the Gatun dam has been cut through a low



Huge cantilever crane for placing concrete at Pedro Miguel locks.



New 800-foot highway suspension across Culebra Cut.



Stone for the concrete is brought from twenty miles east of the canal. The stone crushers at Balboa.

CONCRETE CONSTRUCTION ON THE PANAMA CANAL.

hill situated at about the center of the dam, and with in the excavation thus formed is now being laid the deep concrete flooring, the massive retaining walls and the piers between which will swing the gates for regulating the height of the water level in that great artificial inland sea which will be formed by the dam.

It can readily be understood that the enormous and expeditious laying of 3,000,000 cubic yards of concrete in structures of this kind is a task of a special sort of great size and complexity. At Gatun about 4,000,000 cubic yards of concrete will be employed. The crushed stone and the cement for this concrete is handled in a very interesting manner. The crushed stone comes from Porto Bello, a small hamlet about 20 miles east of Colon along the Atlantic coast. The rock is taken from the quarry by steam shovels and sent by gravity to the giant crushers, and thence by gravity to the large in the harbor. From this point it is carried to a circular at the Atlantic entrance to the canal and thence, in the old French channel, to the docks at Gatun. Here it is unloaded into storage bins by plant grain buckets, operated from above, and would be taken two sets of towers on either side of the channel.

The sand is brought from Nom bre de Dios, about 40 miles along the coast from Colon. It is taken from the sand pits by clamshell buckets, loaded into steel barges and taken to Gatun, where it is unloaded by a process similar to that of unloading the crushed rock. The cement is now being shipped from New York. At Colon the cement is transferred to barges and taken via the old French channel to Gatun and unloaded to the storage yards. The rock and sand storage piles have a capacity of about 100,000 cubic yards, while the cement storage accommodates about 100,000 barrels. From these storage buildings, the rock, sand, and cement are delivered through valves to charging cars running underneath. These cars, which are electrically operated, carry the materials to the concrete mixing machine located near the locks' site and discharge it direct to the machines. After the mix is mixed, it is dumped into trucks set on flat cars, and the cars are run to position under the wide railways spanning the locks' site and from these railways the buckets filled with concrete are swung to position on the locks under construction.

The general principles upon which the plant at the locks on the Pacific side is designed are the same as those employed at Gatun, the mechanical details have been varied to meet the local conditions.

The latest report of the work, namely, that for December last, shows that during the month the total work of excavation amounted to 2,618,661 cubic yards and that the total canal excavation of all kinds amounted to 2,611,661 cubic yards. The material placed in dams, mainly at the Gatun dam amounted to 340,610 cubic yards, and during the month 57,286 cubic yards of concrete were built up in place.

#### HALLEY'S COMET

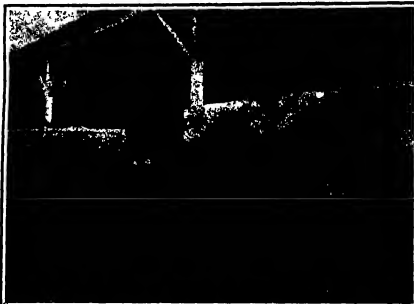
Some interesting measures of Halley's comet, made with the micrometer of the Yorks 40-inch refractor, are published by Prof. Barnard in No. 806 of the *Astronomical Journal*. With this instrument the comet was quite an easy object, and the measures should be good, but, as Prof. Barnard remarks, the edges of such a nebulous body are not easy to see.

The measure extended up to November 26th, 1909 when the estimated magnitude was about 11.9, and the comet showed a condensation of some 7 in. in diameter. The diameter of the whole object was 41 inches, and possibly an ill-defined nucleus was seen, but this feature was very doubtful. From September 17th to November 14th the measured diameters reduced to miles ranged from 16,400 to 200 miles the mean being 12,800 miles, or about 1 1/2 times the earth's diameter.

At the 14th meeting of the Royal Astronomical Society reported in No. 418 of the *Observer*, the Astronomer Royal announced that a photograph secured with the Reynolds reflector at Helwan, on August 24th, shows the comet's nucleus, its position agreed within 0.12 in. R.A. and 17 min. in declination with the position calculated from the Cowell Greenwich orbit corrected by the Greenhill observations. Messrs. Kyrle and others are to be congratulated heartily upon securing the first known pho-

tograph of the comet. In No. 35 of the *Gazette astronomique*, Signor Pio Spanuelli discusses the probable encounter between the earth and the comet's tail in May next. At 10 A. M. (10 M.T.) on May 18th, the comet will pass the descending node of its orbit, while the earth will pass the same point 18 hours later. For an encounter between the tail and the earth to take place, it is shown to be necessary that the latter should be 32,100,000 kilometers (19,932,277 miles) long and that its breadth should be such that it extends from its axis earthward, 400,000 kilometers (248,540 miles).

The accompanying chart shows approximately the



The sluiceways, etc., for rapidly emptying and filling the locks are of unusual size.

#### WOODEN FORMS FOR GATUN LOCK CONSTRUCTION

apparent path of the comet, according to Mr. Crommelin's ephemeris up to April 15th - Nature.

#### The Occasional Glance in Coast

Prof. G. W. Perry and Mr. Perry Barber of the University of Illinois have made an elaborate study of the occulted gases in coal, which is published in a bulletin recently issued by the university. As a result of their study it seems that two active processes are set up immediately upon the liberation of the coal from the vein. The first is an exudation of hydrocarbons, mainly consisting of marsh gas ( $\text{CH}_4$ ), the second is an absorption of oxygen. There can be little question, moreover, that the alterations proceed simultaneously. There are present in the gases from all the samples of fresh drillings, notable quantities of methane, ranging from 16 per cent to 46 per cent of the various gas volumes. At the same time the oxygen present reacts in a very positive manner, in some cases even reaching the vanishing point. That this transposition of gases is interdependent and is of the nature of an osmotic exchange can hardly be affirmed as an explanation of

yield more methane, though in relatively small quantities. On the other hand, the avidity of the coal for oxygen seems to be pronounced at the very beginning of the exposure of the freshly-mined material, and while there are a number of cases where a certain agreement seems to exist between the in-going and the out-going marsh gas, still there are more cases where the absorption of oxygen is pronounced without any evidence of marsh gas being consumed. In all cases the oxygen-nitrogen ratio shows a positive diminution of the oxygen from the normal ratio of approximately 1 to 4 with practically no evidence of marsh gas being present. It seems fair to conclude, from the present, that there is no necessary connection, at least of a strictly chemical nature, between the exudation of marsh gas and the absorption of oxygen.

Again, the liberation of  $\text{CH}_4$ , while very active in the first few days after removal of the coal from the ground, diminishes in amount quite rapidly till, after the second month, there is very little of this gas in evidence. The activity of the coal for oxygen, on the contrary, seems to be of longer duration. Samples collected June 1st, 1908, were tested in May and June 1908. There is marked absorption of oxygen in the sample after two days' exposure in the flask to normal air, while in the second, with five days' exposure, a still further reduction in the oxygen ratio without accompanying evidence, also, it could be made, of marsh gas was obtained. A marked avidity for oxygen was shown after two years from the time of collecting.

These facts have a direct bearing on the topic of deterioration as substantially defining the limit as to time of that form of alteration which is inevitable in the case of hydrocarbons for the most part is practically complete at the end of two months. These facts have a bearing also upon the matter of weathering, and indirectly upon the matter of spontaneous combustion. The absorption of oxygen is undoubtedly closely connected with both of these phenomena. The studies upon the weathering process coincide with these studies in time, namely, that an oil sample, after a period of oxidation extends over an indefinite length of time. Moreover, while under normal conditions there is effected but a very slight oxidation and loss of fuel value, the conditions are favorable, as, for example, for bringing about a very rapid combination with oxygen upon an increase of temperature.

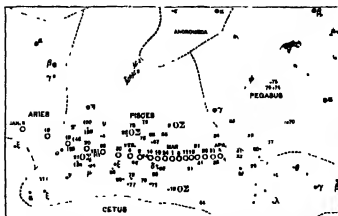
How far this absorption of oxygen is a chemical reaction, or low combination resulting in  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , and how far an absorption into the molecular structure and composition of coal must be left for study.

#### Dying Pearls

In the Museum of the Louvre in Paris lies a collar of pearls at the point of death. Its deathbed is a plaque of velvet, and it is the large collar that was part of the personal attire of Thiers and once belonged to his wife. It is simply set and has no artistic value, its material value, however, is estimated at \$60,000. It consisted of 144 pearls, seven rows, the total weight of which is 2,897 grains, the three largest pearls of the collar weighing 36, 39, and 51 grains respectively. The collar was worn by Thiers until he lost another degree of its luster, and in the course of the present decade it will become as dingy as a much-worn wreath of straw.

Why? Because pearls keep their incomparable sheen only when worn by women and come into habitual contact with the gentle, soft, and warm skin of the wearer. When, for instance, Queen Augusta died it was found that her magnificent strings of pearls were likewise in a perished decline, and for the reason of this that for many years she had not worn them on her bare neck (which fact was explained by her age) but only around the fabric of the neck of her waist. At that time a treatment of baths in sea water was prescribed for her, and for several months, under obvious necessary precautions, they were sunk into the sea and thus recovered their old luster.

When, for instance, a collar of pearls is taken from the neck, where, subject to a temperature of 40 deg. C. approximately it has lain for hours, and is laid upon the marble plate of the dresser, which is perhaps only 20 deg. C. warm, it is liable to speak, (Continued on page 174.)



APPARENT PATH OF HALLEY'S COMET FROM JANUARY 1st to APRIL 15th.

the phenomenon. On the contrary, there seems to be evidence that the gases operate independently of each other.

In the case of samples of marsh gas the exudation of  $\text{CH}_4$  seems to have spent itself in those samples held in laboratory containers for two years. In no case is there evidence of further liberation of this gas, even with thorough application of the vacuum. An exudation of the gases from two-year-old samples shows no marsh gas present. The completion of this exudation would seem to be reached after two months, though it is well to note that by forcing, as in a vacuum, the two-month-old sample may be made to

## Correspondence.

## MR. HINCHER'S PROBLEM.

To the Editor of the *Scientific American*:  
Your correspondent who replies to my problem recently has not studied the question very closely. There is absolutely no doubt as to the possibility of the solution for taking any single number, it is quite evident that the remaining 14 numbers will make 7 pairs, each pair of which will take number forming a definite combination of three. What one number is capable of doing, every other is likewise. So that certainly proves that 7 combinations as told are possible. The question then can be this: can any other similar problem be worked out without a haphazard shifting till you get the solution?  
Find the game. The problem is all right.  
New York City.  
HARVEY B. HINCHER, Ph.D.

## OBSERVATIONS OF A NEWTON IN FLIGHT.

To the Editor of the *Scientific American*:  
I have again no mention in the newspaper of the meteor that fell west of Corrington, North Dakota, on January 10th. It was seen for seventy miles south of Bismarck, North Dakota, and passed over us with great speed. It burst into fire in the ground about seventy miles west of Bismarck. The heat produced was so great that for forty-eight hours no one could approach it closely notwithstanding the fact that the ground was covered with snow and was frozen to a depth of four feet. When the meteor passed over our house from a southerly direction to northeast, it shone most brilliantly. The noise which it produced can be likened only to that of very large cannon laid in flight. The diameter of the meteor is 16 inches. It has been taken out and sent to Bismarck.  
J. J. HARR  
Bismarck, N. D.

## SOME STRANGE AERIAL INSTINCTS.

To the Editor of the *Scientific American*:  
Two items in your science column of January 10th, 1810, interest me. That about the relation of the kitten and cat, because there are scientists in your own city and elsewhere who have held dogmatically that the special sense of this wonderful ability to go back home is not a special and distinct sense, but a result of some sort of observation, although the cat may be blind folded. They even claim that homing pigeons find their way back by observing "the life of the country". While this instinct is true, it is not a special sense, it is developed to a much greater extent in some individual than in others, there seems no justification of the dualism; these lesser creatures of a faculty of orientation or "homing" which is not a special sense, but a small degree. There are many instances where the return has been made over a route very different from that of the outgoing journey and could not have been influenced by the topography, even if it could have been observed.

The other instance is that of the magpie which was found of rubbing tobacco and the ash into its plumage as mentioned by the writer in *Kosmos*. This is of special interest to me because I had made a similar observation on a bluejay—a relative of the magpie—and had never so far been able to connect it from any other source. Fortunately as long ago as 1891 I recorded it in my little book "The Story of the Birds" (Appleton) from which I venture to quote:  
"I saw him [the jay] engaged in the walnut tree one day in late summer in a manner that made me fear that his bath was not being taken. He rubbed it into his plumage. I saw him do it repeatedly, and since walnut trees have a pungent odor and are disagreeable to insects, I feared that he was covering himself as he was trying to get rid of it. If this theory should be correct here was a case of a bird using perfume with at least good intentions." (Page 343)

It is well known that birds and some mammals will rub their bodies into or against something that is strikingly odorous, for the sake of the perfume only in which they seem to delight; but these two are the only instances that I know of where birds are recorded as doing the same. It would be interesting to hear from any other instances—if there are any, as is likely.  
JAMES NEWTON BASKETT  
Mexico, Mo.

## RE-ARRANGING OUR WARSHIP.

To the Editor of the *Scientific American*:  
In a letter to the *Scientific American* of September 18th, 1898, a correspondent, Mr. A. B. Winesfield, suggested the re-arranging of our "Connecticut" class of battleships with four 12-inch guns in place of the eight 12-inch that are now carried in the main battery of this type. The Editor's comment at the time was that the greater weight of 12-inch gun equipments on the beam would necessitate too costly structural strength changes to justify the change. That the 6-inch armor protection would be too light for these ample main-

and that the increase in dead weight would sink the already low armor belt even lower in the water. A previous letter appeared in your issue of August 18th, 1898, and also then changes of this character have been under consideration.

I know that if the *Scientific American* takes up this matter, its influence will be brought to bear on naval men, the object in view, of course, being to make drastic changes in the "Connecticut" type and re-arrange the "Georgia" class. The younger officers in the navy whom I have questioned in regard to this matter are unanimously in favor of these improvements.

As armed at present, the "Connecticut" and "Georgia" classes are not as efficient as a comparatively small additional expense could make them, and in view of the increased superiority of the all-big-gun type of ship, it seems worth while to consider how it would be possible to so reconstruct the above types as to make them more formidable against dreadnaughts.

The pre-arranged function of a battleship is to concentrate the greatest efficiency and power possible in a single vessel. The armament of the "Connecticut" class consists of four 12-inch eight 8-inch, 12 7-inch, and twelve 3-inch, of which four 12's, four 8's, six 7's and eight 3's can fire on broadside. The "Georgia" type mounts four 12-inch, eight 8-inch, twelve 6-inch, and twelve 3-inch, of which four 12's, six 8's, six 7's, and twelve 3's can fire on broadside. Now to convert these ships to dreadnaughts would be necessary to mount one 12-inch gun in place of the two 8's in each of the beam turrets keeping the emplacements as they are.

As the 12-inch guns are too small for battle range and too slow for torpedo defense they could be substituted by the 6-inch rapid fire which are now being mounted on all our new dreadnaughts. With my thirteen of these and a few more 3 pounders in place of the present twelve 3-inch guns, the change is complete and you have a vessel the equal of the "Michigan" type which are really powerful dreadnaughts on "Connecticut" displacement.

In the "Georgia" class the same conversions could be made, except that the four superposed 8's would have to be retained and the six additional 8's omitted. The "Idaho" and "Mississippi" could be similarly re-arranged. Under this arrangement the displacement of the classes would now be: "Connecticut" eight 12-inch and eighteen 6-inch with a broadside fire of six 12's and nine 6's; "Georgia" six 12-inch, four 8-inch, twelve 6-inch, and six 3's with a broadside fire of six 12's, four 8's, and six 3's. Then our two "Idaho", four "Georgia", six "Connecticut" and two "Michigan" and two "Delaware" would mount 124 12-inch guns in stead of 48 at present, and would practically be a dreadnaught fleet. The benefits from these changes are as follows:

1. A homogeneous broadside giving greater concentration of fire at both ranges.
2. A steeper angle of aiming and fire control, with only one range to get and only one aim of gun (excepting the four "Georgia") in the main battery.
3. A greater efficiency of ordinance resulting from more uniformity in ammunition and consequent saving in handling.
4. A better organization for the quicker delivery of shots.
5. An opportunity offered to hold former 7-inch gun crews in service for turret crews.
6. The initiation of new recruits and inaccurate mid sea battles with large crews necessary to their new two in exposed positions.
7. A smaller number of men in action at the same time and belated heavier armor (i.e., turret) built at battle gun prices.
8. An increase in the efficiency of torpedo defense by a gun more practicable in every way than the old caliber, which was ineffective at 2500 yards and required the same number of men to handle it.
9. The lightening of the armor belt and bringing it higher out of the water, where it belongs.
10. The placing of the entire main battery behind turret armor.

Now as to the cost. For one battleship of the "Connecticut" class to be improved as shown above, the expense would consist chiefly of the price of four 12-inch and eighteen 6-inch rifles, and the remodeling of the beam turrets and handling room. The 12-inch guns could occupy positions behind the old 7-inch barbette, on the gun deck the 6-inch casemates (slightly enlarged) on the main deck and new mounts for the superstructure. I do not believe that the structure part of the ship would need strengthening in any way. Moreover, all these discarded sights, servos, and three could be mounted on smaller ranges, where they could do the work required of them, and thus money on new construction could be saved.

I think that you will agree with me in saying that with these improvements made our pre-dreadnaught type will not only possess for greater efficiency than they now, but also that they will be able to stand

in the first line of battle with future dreadnaughts. The real question is this: is this greater efficiency worth its cost? In view of the slight difference in the cost of maintaining in commission a "Connecticut" cut and a "Delaware," I think it is and the *Scientific American* can do a lot toward making these paper changes realities.  
HAROLD M. KIRBY  
Brooklyn, N. Y.

[In publishing this interesting study of a much mooted question, we would point out that it seems to be the unanimous opinion of naval men in all navies that the re-arranging of our battleships into "Connecticut" cut and a "Delaware" is not a very desirable one, that all appropriations for construction should be put into new ships. Such changes as are suggested above would involve enormously costly structural work on the hulls. There is no room for 12-inch guns in the 6-inch turret—Ed.]

## The New Supplemental Catalogue.

The publishers of the *Scientific American* have issued a new catalogue of the *Scientific American Supplement* in which 20,000 articles are listed. Many of these articles have been translated from foreign publications which are ordinarily inaccessible to English-speaking readers. Many of them also are papers read before the various scientific societies of the world and available only in a few large public libraries. The article is all carefully indexed so that the best information on any particular subject can be found in a few minutes. The catalogue will be sent gratuitously to all who apply for it.

## The Current Supplement.

The current *Scientific American*, No. 1741 contains some remarkable pictures of the *Seven Wonders of the World*, together with a good article on them. "The Practical Utilization of Insects" is the title of an article which will interest the farmer. Another installment of the *Munroe and Hall paper on "Combustion and Explosion, a Primer on Explosives for Coal Miners"* is published. Some new uses of paper are described. Mr. D. A. Artur contributes an article on Chinese calendars. Since the Chinese have just celebrated their new year, this article comes out with pertinent timeliness. In a Humphrey's paper on "Inter-continental Purposes," Leonardo da Vinci, perhaps the only truly all-around genius of the world, is the subject of an excellent article by Edward P. Duffell. The Wright Invention is summarized and illustrated.

## Comments Due to Modern This Year.

In addition to the *Scientific American*, other comments are due to pass through perdition this year. The first is known as *Temple's second periodical*, commencing in 1873 July 2nd at Milan. Its period is about 54 years, and it is now published in 1927. In 1894, 1899, and 1904, making its perihelion passage, on the last course, in November, it should therefore return this coming spring. D'Arrest's comet, discovered in 1861, is the second object, and is due to return during the summer of this year. Its period is about 63 years, and it was re-observed at its return in 1827, 1870, 1897, 1898 and 1899, but it escaped observation, being unfavourably placed.

Mr. Lynn, who gives those particulars in No. 418 of the *Observatory* also recalls some of the historic occurrences which have coincided with the returns of Halley's comet.

## The Scientific American Fourth Dimension Book.

The readers of the *Scientific American* have hardly forgotten the *Scientific American's* Prize Competition for the best book on the fourth dimension. The prize of \$500 was awarded to Lieut. Col. Graham Dingley Pitch, U.S.A. His essay was published in the *Scientific American* for July 4th, 1897 and three others which were published in the *Scientific American* followed in successive issues.

It seemed to the judges that of the 216 essays submitted, a certain number showed more than passing merit. Inasmuch as the subject of the fourth dimension is by no means extensive, the publishers decided to turn to Prof. Henry P. Manning of Brown University, one of the judges, for the book of the winning essay. The book of the winning essay, which was done. These essays together with the essays which were awarded the prize and honorable mention, are now published in a book which has just been issued by H. S. G. Co., publishers of the *Scientific American* for \$1.50 and can be ordered through any newsdealer or book-seller.

The deepest coal seams mined in America lie above a depth of 2300 feet from the coal mines in England are developing seams at a depth of 1600 feet. White coal seams are carried on at a depth of about 4000 feet in Belgium.



The Seine near the mist.

The inundation of Paris made many of the streets of that metropolis as navigable as the canals of Venice. The highest point reached by the water was 31 feet 4 inches above the normal at the Pont Royal. Not since the historic flood of 1610 has Paris been visited by such an inundation. On January 26th the waters began to fall, and the city for the first time began to feel safe. Even as it was, the Seine was swollen to thirty times its ordinary volume, and the current raced to the sea twenty times faster than usual. The banks have been overflowed for from half a mile to a mile on either side. That vast and wonderful sewer system which figures so dramatically in Victor Hugo's 'Les Misérables' and which has been dwelt upon time and time again in every guide book of Paris, and that intricate system of subways which handles the vast traffic of Paris, have both played their part in this catastrophe. They served as conduits for the flood tides as they are, they were unable to cope with the turbulent waters. Pavements were pressed upward, and the water bubbled up into the streets. Apprehension was felt for the safety of the monuments of the French capital, an apprehension which is not yet still. It seemed almost certain that their foundations would be sapped. It speaks well for the work of French engineers that none of the twenty-four bridges that span the Seine was carried away, and that it was found necessary to close but eight of them. On the other hand, those bridges undoubtedly helped to dam the waters and to aid in the city's inundation. It speaks well for the architects and masons of the middle ages that the famous Cathedral of Notre Dame

should have stood in a lake for days and days without suffering injury. Many of the historic buildings of Paris were flooded, but fortunately the art treasures seem all to have been preserved with little or no injury. When the saturated ground dries out and contracts, it may be that some of the buildings will settle and possibly collapse. The Louvre, although flooded, was still able to serve its function of housing its priceless paintings and its statues. The great shops could not be opened on account of the water. The famous 'ballets Français' still gave its performance, but it used candles as it did back in the days of Molière.

It was but natural that the Chamber of Deputies should have continued its sessions. An exhibition of fright on the part of the legislators would undoubtedly have heightened the public terror. As it was, the members were ferried across the square to the chamber. The old Latin Quarter and the Champ de Mars, the Rue Royale, the Boulevard Haussmann, the Place du Concord, the Champs Elysées were swamped.

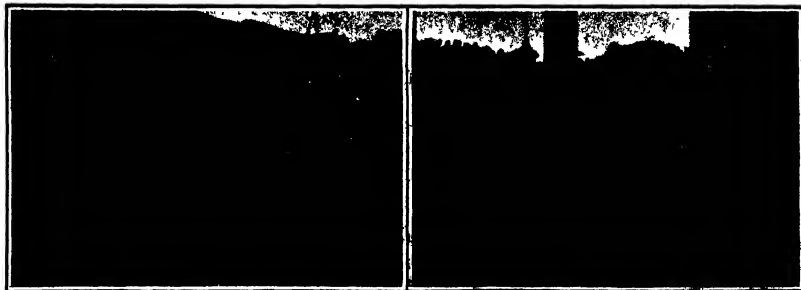
Naturally the subways suffered heavily. Only the Gare du Nord seems to have escaped. The station of St. Lazare seems to have suffered most severely. As it was, the suburban traffic was entirely cut off, so that the spurring of the Gare du Nord served simply to give the frightened populace a place of questionable refuge. Fortunately the waters rose so gradually that the inhabitants of the sewers (the theme of many a thrilling French short story) and of the basements and sub-cellar of Paris were able to escape. Suburban towns lying somewhat lower than the city have suffered. The breaking of a dyke completely inundated

Gennavilliers. Its community of 10,000 persons was driven out by ten feet of water.

Paris may now be considered safe from water, but the danger from sickness still prevails. The stench of the stagnant water and of the drowned animals will undoubtedly continue for days. The Paris health authorities will find difficulty in coping with that situation.

The actual cause of the flood has not been fully revealed. Some explain it geologically by arguing that the basin of the Seine had become saturated during a mild winter, characterized by heavy rains and little evaporation. It will be safer before accepting this theory to await the investigation of the municipal engineers. Only when the floods have subsided and a careful examination can be made, will the full measure of the disaster be ascertained. The accounts of bursting sewers and subways and caving streets point indubitably to the necessity of reconstructing much of the famed Parisian sewer and subway systems. It will probably be months before Paris will conduct business as it did before the flood.

The engineering aspects of the flood have been sufficiently discussed in our editorial of February 8th. For that reason the results of this Parisian inundation need not here be dwelt upon again. It is clear that either the channel of the Seine must be widened by dredging, by the removal of river piers, or by the inordinately expensive construction of an artificial waterway around the city, a waterway which will serve the purpose of diverting the surplus of the Seine in time of flood and of discharging it below the city.



The gondollers of Paris.

A cat-ferry in one of the streams.



**Reclamation of the Friedeburg Peat Bogs.**  
The total area of the peat bogs and moors of Germany is more than 3,000 square miles, of which about two-fifths are situated in Hanover and Schleswig-Holstein. The Prussian government possesses in East Prussia nearly 40,000 acres of upland moors, of which about 10,000 acres, known as the Anrich, or Friedeburg bogs, have for some years been the scene of an attempt at reclamation, which is being carried on with great skill and energy, though unfortunately with a degree of secrecy which makes it difficult to ascertain the exact facts, although the undertaking is of the greatest and most general importance. It is contemplated not only to reclaim the moors for cultivation and settlement, but also to make them the source of energy which will supply electric current, the light and power to the surrounding region within a radius of thirty miles. Electric light, thus obtained, is already supplied to Runden, Wilhelmshaven, and several other cities and towns, and large quantities of ammonia, hydrogen sulphide, and other gaseous products are sold for use in various industries. The district to be reclaimed lies between the Rine-Jade delta on the north and the Norddeutsche Kanal on the south, between which a connecting canal will be constructed. Short canals will connect the system with the canals of the older moor station to the westward. In all 35 miles of new canals will be required. Their construction will necessitate the stripping of about 650 acres of moor, from which it is estimated that nearly 250 million cubic feet of peat will be obtained. If this work were done by the old Dutch method, the canals would not be finished in several decades, during which period the price of peat, already very low in this district, would continue to decline. Both of these difficulties were avoided simultaneously by the adoption of electrical methods, by which the work of excavation is carried on very rapidly and supplies its own fuel. In the center of the bog is a boiler plant, which consumes peat exclusively. The problem of course, will be still more complicated when a method of producing electricity directly from heat is developed.

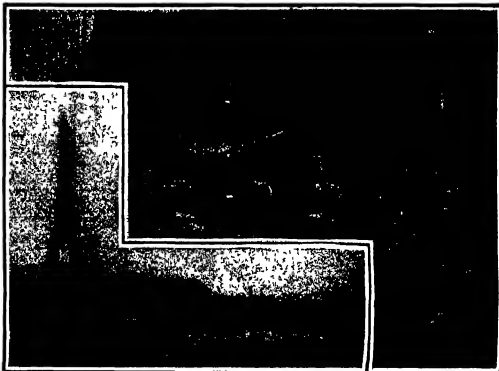
The first settlers established on the Friedeburg moor will carry on what is known as surface cultivation, and will at the same time gather peat, which they will sell to the electrical company, the charter of which runs for seventy years. As the high moor is thus cut down the method of cultivation will be gradually changed to that which is employed in the low-lying moors of Holland.

All of the energy is supplied from the central power station of the Siemens-Schuckert Company, situated

on an island in the bog at the intersection of two main roads. From this point wires, supported by poles, radiate in all directions, supplying light and power to the whole country for many miles around. The main canal is bordered by several rows of poles and wires, one for the telephone, another for the post-digging and agricultural machinery, a third for the high-tension alternating-current long-distance service. Current was to be supplied to the surrounding cities in November of this year. The station is equipped with two steam turbines of 1,500 horsepower each. The great plans used for the excavation of the canals have long been driven by electricity. The peat dug each day is compressed by electric presses into 4,000 blocks, which when dry are used as fuel in the central

when dried will furnish 1 1/2 million tons of fuel peat. This amount of fuel alone would supply the central station, producing five million kilowatt hours of energy for sixty-six years. On each side of each canal, a strip 165 feet wide is to be cleared of peat for reclamation and settlement. The peat thus obtained, added to that obtained from the canals, would enable the capacity of the station for the duration of its charter to be tripled.

An idea of the cost of the electric light and power thus furnished may be gained from the contract recently concluded with the town of Bunt, in which the price of lighting current is fixed at about 10 cents and that of power current at 5 cents per kilowatt hour. At these rates a 16-candle carbon incandescent lamp or a 40-candle metal filament lamp would cost about 5 cents per hour and an arc lamp from 2 to 8 1/2 cents per hour according to its candle power. Thus the Friedeburg bogs are to be utilized as a field for reclamation, as a source of light for the surrounding country within a radius of 30 miles, and as a cheap and reliable source of power for all the cities and farms of East Prussia. Although all the hopes which have been built on the enterprise may not be fulfilled, it is already certain that the reclamation and cultivation of bog land has entered upon a new and promising stage of development in consequence of this application of electricity. It must be admitted however, that on the Friedeburg moor the conditions for reclamation are especially favorable. The land is in general level, and it has already been wonderfully dried and smoothed by burning. The roads through the moor are already bordered



Hence from the great Paris flood.

station. In the gas generators 40,000 cubic feet of fuel gas and 30 pounds of ammonium sulphate are obtained from 100 pounds of peat. The combustion of this quantity of fuel gas generates 273 horsepower hours of energy, while the sale of the ammonia compounds pays a good interest on the capital invested. Contracts for supplying light and power to most of the surrounding towns and cities have already been signed. The duration of the contract in most cases is forty years, while the charter of the Siemens-Schuckert Company still remains in force seventy-five years. The area assigned for cultivation and settlement comprises about 17,000 acres. The digging of the canal requires the peat to be removed from a strip about 150 feet wide, so that the construction of the 18 miles of canal will involve the stripping of 800 acres. The average depth of the peat is 1 1/4 feet. In digging the superficial stratum of 70 inches, which is comparatively worthless, the digging of all the canals will produce about 247 million cubic feet of peat, which

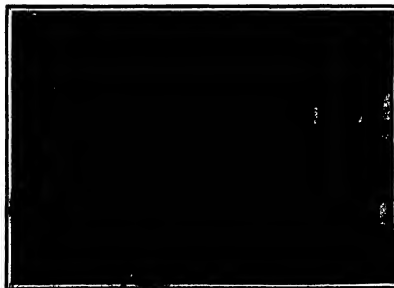
with rankly-growing grass

#### Peary a Rear Admiral.

Commander Robert E. Peary has been made a rear admiral of the highest grade and with maximum pay, so far as the Senate can accomplish such recognition of his services. The bill recently introduced by Senator Hale was favorably reported from the Committee on Naval Affairs and promptly passed without discussion.

The bill authorizes the President to appoint Commander Peary a rear admiral with an extra number and place him on the retired list. An amendment was adopted giving him the pay of a rear admiral of the first grade.

The top notch pay of a rear admiral is \$6,000 a year and that of the same officer on the retired list three-fourths of his active compensation. Thus Admiral Peary will receive \$6,000 a year for the remainder of his life.



The Gare du Nord, Paris, France.



The submerged Rue de Lyon.

## Industrial Chimneys and Water Towers of Concrete Blocks

BY H. PRIME KIEFFER

The employment of concrete blocks for the construction of factory or industrial chimneys and water towers is one of the most natural use of that material in building construction. It is very surprising that the use of artificial systems is confined to blocks for this or that purpose. Some of the most famous blocks of America where blocks have found a wider range of use than in any country in the world. The system is the ideal one for the rapid erection of factory chimneys in the United States there have been in use some twenty different systems in which reinforced concrete is employed but they all have some primary form of a scaffolding in their design. This is the underlying reason why these chimneys cannot be constructed more economically and rapidly. The method of constructing chimneys of separately moulded concrete blocks in the invention of M. Dumas, an engineer and architect of France in Belgium. It is controlled by Leon Munier of this also of France, who furnished the data and photographs for the present article. The system is suitable for its simplicity its beauty of form its economy in cost, and its adaptability to rapid construction.

The chimneys are like all others in that they are composed of three parts: the foundation, the base and the shaft. The shaft is formed of reinforced concrete of a special design. The form of the blocks is shown in the accompanying diagram. The number of blocks in each course all ways remains the same, there is a taper in the chimney. They are placed in regular horizontal courses to the required height and upon the top is placed a special coping block of either concrete, cast iron or cut stone.

The builders work on a rough platform and from the interior of the structure and each block is received by them ready for its particular position. Two men are usually employed above in laying the blocks, and two below to hold them to the platform. The blocks in each ascending course are placed in the opposite direction, that is to say, all the even courses will have the same direction and all the odd courses will take the reverse of this. In this manner, the joining of the blocks of one course where they do not meet perfectly will be covered by the blocks in the course above. As shown in the diagram each block has at one of its extremities, a "hook" similar to the shape of the letter "U". This "hook" forms a hollow space which extends the full length of the chimney and of course there will be just as many of these hollow spaces as there are sides to the chimneys. Through these vertical hollow spaces are placed vertical iron rods B, varying in diameter according to the height of the structure. At each course these rods are tied or bound to the courses by U-shaped flat iron yokes F. These in turn, are secured to a small iron rod D which is placed between the courses horizontally and in a groove made for it in the top of the blocks.

The phasing of the vertical rods in the openings and not in the substance of the shaft proper, forms an important advantage of this system. The reinforcement is thus kept at a low temperature, and is not subject to the injurious effect which would arise from unequal expansion if the steel was in the center of the mass. Ferrous concrete is indestructible by fire as long as the temperature of decomposition of concrete is not reached, but it must be remembered that although the two sides of a specimen of concrete are the same, the coefficients of conductivity are

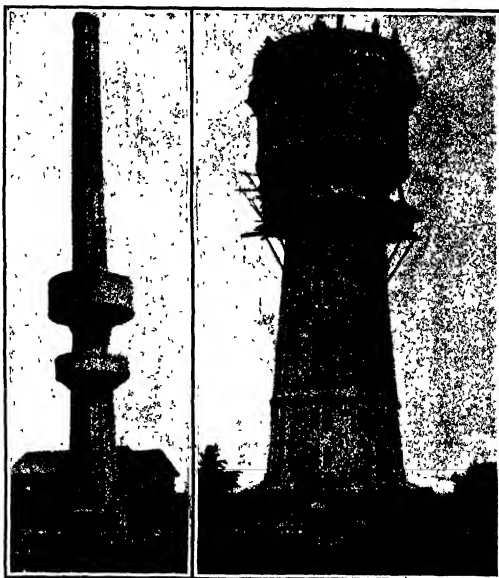
very different, and fracture is likely to arise if, from this cause, the temperature of the iron exceeds that of the concrete. Consideration of this condition is especially important in the case of a structure which is heated on one side, only, such as a chimney.

A clever idea in connection with the design of the blocks is that there is need for only three, or at the most, four sizes of blocks for the average chimney.



- A. Isolates the hidden reinforcing rods of the blocks.
- B. The vertical steel reinforcing rod.
- C. The concrete of the block.
- D. The reinforcing rod connecting all the blocks in any one course.
- E. A flat U-shaped iron yoke which holds the vertical rod at a fixed position in the hollow space.
- F. Metal fitting.

Cross section of a portion of a concrete water tower. Section at one end of the joining of two of the courses.



Concrete block chimney carrying two receivers of reinforced concrete.

Concrete-block water tower for the 1910 International Exposition at Brussels, Belgium.

## INDUSTRIAL CHIMNEYS AND WATER TOWERS OF CONCRETE BLOCKS

160 feet high and with a taper of one to three per cent. This is made possible by the following arrangement. The molds by which the blocks are made consist of but three cast-iron plates, held together by wooden stop blocks, and three ordinary iron clamps. Different sizes of blocks can be made therefrom, by simply changing the relative positions of the plates and the wooden stop blocks. After the blocks are molded, they are placed in the following manner. Take, for instance, the first row, at the base. Here, naturally the blocks are of the largest size, and the arm of the block the longest. The arms of the blocks in this course are placed just to the edge of the blocks of the blocks and in the next course the arms are placed just a little farther into the books, and thus

each succeeding course has a diameter smaller than the one below it, and in this manner, the taper of the chimney is obtained. As the longer blocks are some three feet in length and the taper across the small circular opening about six to eight inches, it is possible to make a considerable taper in this manner. For a taper of 1% to 3 per cent, the size of the blocks is changed every forty or fifty feet. The blocks may, of course, be laid with absolutely no taper, and then one size, only, of blocks is used. Some chimneys have been constructed on this plan, but they appear to be not so graceful as those having a slight taper.

The concrete blocks are usually made at the chimney site, although they can of course be molded at a concrete block factory, and this may be economical in case there are several chimneys under construction in the same district. The proportions for the concrete mixture vary somewhat, but the usual mixture consists of about five parts gravel, three of sand, and two of cement. Dust of stone is used sometimes, and has given very good results. From an architectural point of view, the chimneys constructed with this system present a pleasing appearance. Being thinner than brick chimneys, they rise more gracefully from the laenas, and yet the strength and stability which they actually possess is at once suggested to the eye by the appearance of strength which is presented by the protruding rounded angles.

A number of chimneys and water towers have been built in Europe after this system, and the two photographs presented in connection with this article show a water tower, and a combined water tower and chimney. The water tower which is located in Tivoli, a suburb of Brussels, Belgium, will be used in connection with the exposition to be held in that city. The tower and tank have a height of 145 feet and the latter has a capacity of 250,000 gallons. The structure is circular and is built entirely of concrete blocks and without molding of any kind excepting that used in the building of the concrete reinforcing spiral surrounding the base of the tank proper. The inside of the tank is built up in practically six stories connected by a winding stairway. These different floors are divided into rooms which will be occupied by engineers, foremen and other workmen during the exposition. The stairways are placed along the outer walls and the water remains in the center inclosed by a concrete covering of square cross section.

## Oil That Could Not Be Burned

It is often difficult to keep machinery properly oiled in cold weather, as the oil freezes in the oil holes and the cups, and the oil upon the ways of the lathe and planer becomes stiff, causing the machines to work hard. A good oil for winter use may be made by mixing graphite with cylinder oil until in a thick or paste consistency, and then adding kerosene until it flows freely. This oil will not become stiff at 14 degrees below zero, and is easy to use in those operating machinery outside or in cold shops or power.

In his presidential address to the American Street and Interurban Railway Association, Mr. Shaw, at Denver, said that in round numbers there are 1,250 street and interurban railway companies in America, with a total of 35,000 miles of single-track and 75,000 passenger cars. The passenger carried annually is 10,000,000, and the gross income \$44,000,000.



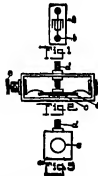
for the waste silver it contains. If it is desired to increase the thickness of the deposit of silver, the operation must be repeated as soon as the silvering is complete, wash the plate well in a soft stream of running water, stand it corrosive to drain and dry. When dry the former thin deposit of silver must be used as a coating to protect the deposited silver. Rub the plate,  $\frac{1}{2}$  pound, wood alcohol, 6 parts. As soon as this coating has dried it must be painted over again with the following paste: Red lead,  $\frac{1}{2}$  pound, white lead, 1 pound, mixed with enough boiled oil and a small quantity of turpentine to make a good covering with a single coating. A small quantity of gold size may also be added to increase the drying and adhesion, thus, quantity. The mirror is now ready for framing if no work has to be done. It will be advisable to cover the plate all over with a piece of felt, and keep this felt wet during the operation for two reasons. First no pieces of woollen fiber can settle upon the plate, and secondly, the heat from the state slab is communicated to the glass better than from a dry surface.

For a regular workshop a very good size is a 4 by 7 feet with a gutter cut around the slab, so that the spent silvering liquid can run from the tilted plate, around the felt and be collected running through a lead at one corner. In this case the liquid will be sure to come in contact with the felt. This will prove of no consequence because in time it will become saturated with silver, which will result in twenty times its first cost when sent to the silver refiner, and not only pay for a new felt covering, but increase the size of the pocket book at the same time. The quantity of silver required to coat a square foot of glass with a moderate coating of silver is 14 grains. An estimate as to cost can be made from this amount.

#### SELENIUM CELL WITH CONTACT BY PRESSURE

BY N. A. DUBOIS

The usual method of making a selenium cell on glass in producing the electrodes at a place of crystallized selenium, which develops its resistance to an electric current, when submitted to the action of light. The quality of selenium can be perfectly controlled, as it needs not come in contact with metal when held in which state it dissolves easily all metals (I. e., the electrodes). This is of importance, because small quantities of other elements sometimes have considerable influence on its sensitiveness. More over a piece of selenium, that for some reason has lost its efficiency, can be easily replaced by another piece, at its cost. The most important point, however, is that the contraction or decrease in volume (1 to 3 per cent), which is inseparable from the process of crystallization, has no influence whatever upon the contact with the electrodes, as the place of selenium is



SELENIUM CELL WITH CONTACT BY PRESSURE.

given its definite form after the contraction has taken place. Strong currents of short duration do not lead to the destruction of the cell, as there is full scope for expansion.

Despite these important facts, this method has not been hitherto used because very thin plates of selenium are necessary as the action of light is limited to an extremely thin layer of the exposed surface (calculated by Marx to be about 1/600,000 inch thick). Moreover, selenium is rather fragile and being of high resistance heavy pressure must be used in order to realize good contact.

The author discovered that selenium, when motion between a cold and a very hot glass plate, strongly adheres to the latter, after the crystallization. It is thus possible to cover a thin (1/600,000 inch) flexible glass plate with an exceedingly thin coating of selenium (1/1,000 to 1/100,000 inch) which has a highly polished surface that gives very good contact with the electrodes. These cells are made on a glass plate (Fig. 1). They are from 250 to 2,500 electrodes on every inch.

Cells constructed after this method are very reliable and show remarkable resistance to the action of light in its working manner. The following is a description of a cell actually made.

Working surface =  $\frac{1}{4}$  by  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch.

Resistance in the dark = 20,000 ohms.

Resistance in ordinary daylight = 10,000 ohms.

Resistance in strong light = 2,000 ohms.

Maximum intensity of current = 0.0015 amperes.

Fig. 2 gives a diagram of the cell.

Fig. 3 is an end view of same.

Glass plates with a thin coating of metal (silver) have before now been used as electrodes for substances sensitive to light. This combination or at least the results attained are new.

#### SOME SCIENTIFIC AMUSEMENTS.

**The Candle and the Funnel.**—Ask a person to extinguish a lighted candle, two feet distant from his mouth, by blowing through a common funnel (the funnel has been long used as a device for extinguishing candles sensitive to light. This combination or at least the results attained are new).

The candle and the funnel—Ask a person to extinguish a lighted candle, two feet distant from his mouth, by blowing through a common funnel (the funnel has been long used as a device for extinguishing candles sensitive to light. This combination or at least the results attained are new).



LIGHT AND WINDS WAY OF BLOWING OUT A CANDLE.

funnel so that some part of its conical surface would, if attended, strike the candle flame. An inexperienced person naturally directs the axis of the funnel toward the candle and consequently fails to extinguish the flame. If he stands quite near the candle and blows gently the flame will even be drawn toward the funnel by the inward current. The whirling motion of the air may be made visible by using a glass funnel and filling it with tobacco smoke.

**Pardners of Ebullition.**—Everybody knows that water boils at the temperature of 212 deg. Fahr. But if an uncorked bottle partly filled with water is set in a vacuum containing water in which a good deal of salt has been dissolved, and the pan is heated over a spirit lamp or otherwise, the water in the bottle will begin to boil while the water outside still remains perfectly quiet. Yet the water outside must be at least as hot as the water inside (212 deg. Fahr.), for the latter is heated by the former. Hence we see that water which contains salt in solution does not boil at 212 deg. Fahr. The same effect is produced by dissolving any other solid substance in the water.

Now, if the bottle is taken from the hot brine and corked, the water in the bottle stops boiling, but it will boil again, even after it has cooled many degrees, if cold water is poured on the upper part of the bottle. The explanation is that the boiling point of water is affected by pressure. It is about 212 deg. Fahr. under the ordinary pressure of the atmosphere (exactly 212 deg. when the barometer stands at 30 inches) but if the pressure is reduced, water boils at a lower temperature. When the water bottle was corked and taken from the fire, its upper part was filled with steam at atmospheric pressure, which had expelled the air originally present. As the bottle cooled, this steam partly condensed and its pressure was diminished, but not sufficiently to permit the water to boil, because the water cooled also and its gradually diminishing temperature was always a little below the boiling point corresponding to the actual pressure. But the water in the bottle is added, causing a rapid condensation of steam and a sudden lowering of the pressure without having much cooling effect on the water, which consequently begins to boil.

**Distillation.**—The same apparatus may be employed to illustrate the process of distillation. The brine in the pan is replaced by fresh water, a hole is bored in the cork and a glass tube is fitted to the hole. To boil the water in the bottle is added, causing a rapid condensation of steam and a sudden lowering of the pressure without having much cooling effect on the water, which consequently begins to boil.

the water vapor) issues from the end of the glass tube, where its pressure can be detected by its odor or by the application of a lighted match, which will result in the production of a tall blue flame. The jet should not be lighted until the mixture has been heated long enough to expel the air from the bottle, as the ignition of a mixture of air and alcohol would produce a violent explosion. For this reason the cork, though it should be airtight, should not be inserted too tightly. With this precaution an explosion will drive out the cork, instead of shattering the bottle. This experiment, and the others performed with this apparatus, should not be attempted by children or careless persons.

**Hero's Fountain.**—If the jet of flame issuing from the tube is extinguished and the tube pushed down until it dips into the water, a fine liquid stream will

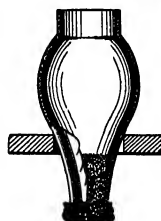


MODIFIED FORM OF HERO'S FOUNTAIN.

be thrown high in the air by the pressure of the mixed vapors of alcohol and water in the upper part of the bottle.—*Science.*

#### A SIMPLE EFFECTIVE FILTER.

The filter bars described was first made by the writer in 1876, and used originally for filtering gelatine emulsions. As a water filter it is both simple and effective. Procure an ordinary kerosene lamp chimney. Fit over the end of it two or three thicknesses of washed chamois cloth. Press a tuft of absorbent cotton into the small part of the neck for about three inches in depth, insert



HOME-MADE FILTER.

the chimney, and place it in a hole cut in a wooden shab as a support. Pour the water in until the filter is filled, when it will be observed that any organic matter, chips of iron rust, etc., will be retained by the cotton. The fine organic matter may penetrate the cotton for about one inch, but no farther. The resultant filtered water will be bright, clean, and pure.

A paper dealing with "Research on Metallic Filament Lamps," by Mr. F. H. Roake, Lancaster, was recently presented at a meeting of the Birmingham Institution of Electrical Engineers. The research was undertaken in order to investigate the conditions of working as regards voltage, and efficiency and percentage drop in candle-power, giving the most economical life in the case of metallic filament glow lamps, and to determine as far as possible the cost of illumination with this source of light. The author stated that the useful life of a lamp, and the drop in candle-power which it was advisable to allow for a given voltage, depended on the cost of current and the price of the lamp. The cheaper the current, the longer the life, and the greater the admissible drop. Taking the current at 54. per unit as an average price, and the lamp run at rated voltage, then it paid in the case of the incandescent class of lamp to throw it away as soon as the candle-power had fallen to 1 per cent below its original value. This result appeared startling at first, considering the large initial cost of the lamp. However, by the time that point was reached the lamp had been burning for 1,500 hours at the best possible efficiency, so that the cost of the lamp per candle-power had become small.















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(Continued from page 174)  
 melting at a lower temperature than the melting point of the most fusible component. By compressing zinc and copper powders, Sprague obtained a conglomerate which was distinguished from brass only by its slightly darker color.

In spite of these partial results the problem had not so far been definitely solved. It remained in fact to be seen whether, by augmenting the speed of fusion of the mixed metal powders, pressure really favors the formation of those conglomerates which are characterized by alloys obtained by melting. This question is answered by Prof. G. TAMMANN on the basis of recent experiments by G. VISING.

When submitting a mixture of fusions of two metals forming neither a chemical compound nor mixed crystals to a zinc and cadmium or copper and silver) to a pressure of 4,000 atmospheres, and heating the conglomerate thus obtained the rising curve of temperature is seen at a given point to slacken down after reaching a temperature 10° C. higher than that at which the whole is found to melt. As far as its thermal properties and its structure are considered this conglomerate is practically identical with alloys obtained by melting.

As in the experiments under high pressure the presence of two metals forming a definite compound and capable of mixing in all proportions in a liquid state, and by heating the conglomerate thus obtained, two stopping points are found in the curve of temperature. The first of these points corresponds with the melting of a compound formed at the surface while the other corresponds with the formation of the alloy. This is the case for instance, with mixtures of magnesium with zinc, lead tin or bismuth. The conglomerate composed of magnesium and antimony has only a single stopping point situated at 300° C. below the melting point of antimony. This corresponds with the formation of the compound Mg<sub>2</sub>Sb.

The temperature then rises very rapidly in order to eventually fall down to the melting point of the alloy. The third case investigated by Vising relates to the conglomerates of two metals forming an uninterrupted series of mixed crystals, such as magnesium and cadmium on the one hand and lead and thallium on the other. When heating such conglomerates only a single stopping point is observed corresponding to the melting point of the most fusible component. The form then assumed by the curve depends on the diffusion of the two components into one another. The conglomerates obtained merely by compression do not contain any trace of mixed crystals. Microscopical examination thus only shows the existence of grains of copper and tin recently prepared conglomerates. If, however, these are heated to 200° C. (15° below the melting point of the tin) there are found between the grains of copper and tin. The crystals corresponding to the compounds Cu<sub>2</sub>Sn and Cu<sub>3</sub>Sn respectively. If these conglomerates are heated during 20 hours to 400° C. a layer of mixed crystals corresponding to the formula Cu<sub>2</sub>Sn is found. This proves that compounds of these metals are permeable to their constituents.

The following conclusions are derived from these experiments: The compression of two metals at ordinary temperatures will yield conglomerates containing only the pure metal. In neither compounds nor mixed crystals as characteristic of alloys obtained by melting. Mere compression thus does not cause diffusion sufficiently to bring about combination or the formation of mixed crystals. If, however, heated metals (i. e., with increased speed of diffusion) are submitted to pressure (here is obtained not only a more coherent mass, but a portion of the metals is found to form compounds and mixed crystals, so as to produce a conglomerate which is very much like a real alloy.

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 The only way to get ahead is to build a machine that will make money for you. The only way to get ahead is to build a machine that will make money for you. The only way to get ahead is to build a machine that will make money for you.

**ICE MACHINES**  
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 The only way to get ahead is to build a machine that will make money for you. The only way to get ahead is to build a machine that will make money for you. The only way to get ahead is to build a machine that will make money for you.

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**Keenoh**  
 Automatic Razor Sharpener  
 Because you never had a razor-sharpener any longer and smoother than your razor will be 20 seconds after you've used the Keenoh. Because it will do equally wonderful work with the safety or the old style razor. Because—being absolutely automatic—it can't fail, no matter how careless you may be, to put your razor into a condition as perfect as it would be if it had been sharpened and honed by the best barber in your town. Because it will do these things every day, and keep on doing them for the rest of your life. Because it will positively make your safety blade sharper than it was when new, and enable you to use every blade for 500 to 1,000 perfect shaves. Because of these things which make it certain that no man will return a Keenoh after using it—1 cent afford to send you one for 10 days' free trial. That's what I will do gladly if you will fill out the coupon and mail it to me.

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 575 W. Fort Street, Detroit, Mich.  
 Send me a "KEENOH" Automatic Razor Sharpener for ten days' free trial, through my dealer named below, to whom, if satisfactory, I will pay \$2.50

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The "Brooks Loats" is a small, light, and easy to handle boat. It is built of aluminum and is strong and durable. It is built of aluminum and is strong and durable. It is built of aluminum and is strong and durable.

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Stable At Small Expense

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The Old-Style Razor Made Absolutely Safe—the Safety-Razor Made Absolutely Perfect

## DURHAM-DUPLEX RAZOR

### Everything a Razor Should Be

If you use a "Safety" Razor, you'll like the Durham-Duplex Razor better because it has every good feature of the best "safety" razor and the additional advantage that it shaves with the correct sliding disposal stroke—something too-like—something too-like—something too-like.

FREE TRIAL OFFER  
The Durham-Duplex Razor is new, and is not yet sold by all retailers. We will send you the razor if not entirely satisfactory return it within 30 days and get your money back. Get one today!

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Autolite 25c Self-Lighting  
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### Autolite 25c Self-Lighting

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### Munlitte 15c CIGARETTES

Munlitte 15c CIGARETTES

### Autolite 25c Self-Lighting

Munlitte 15c CIGARETTES

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Munlitte 15c CIGARETTES

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NICKEL  
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## RUNABOUT—FAMILY CAR

### DELIVERY WAGON—ALL IN ONE CAR—AT \$850

The 1919 runabout is a remarkable economy and is a car which is one of the most popular in the market. For family and pleasure use and for delivery work. Low floor and delivery system—doors sturdy and sturdy enough for all. The car can be folded and stored in less than 10 minutes. The car is a car which is one of the most popular in the market.

## INVINCIBLE SCHACHT

### THREE-PURPOSE CAR

is the necessary, comprehensive and happy car of all ages. All have seen it in each of its three forms. It is a car which is one of the most popular in the market. For family and pleasure use and for delivery work. Low floor and delivery system—doors sturdy and sturdy enough for all. The car can be folded and stored in less than 10 minutes. The car is a car which is one of the most popular in the market.

## SCHACHT MANUFACTURING CO.

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## 1910 MODEL

### Ideal Lawn Mower Grinder

Used as a Light Delivery Wagon

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### WE SHIP ON APPROVAL

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## Remo-h-gems

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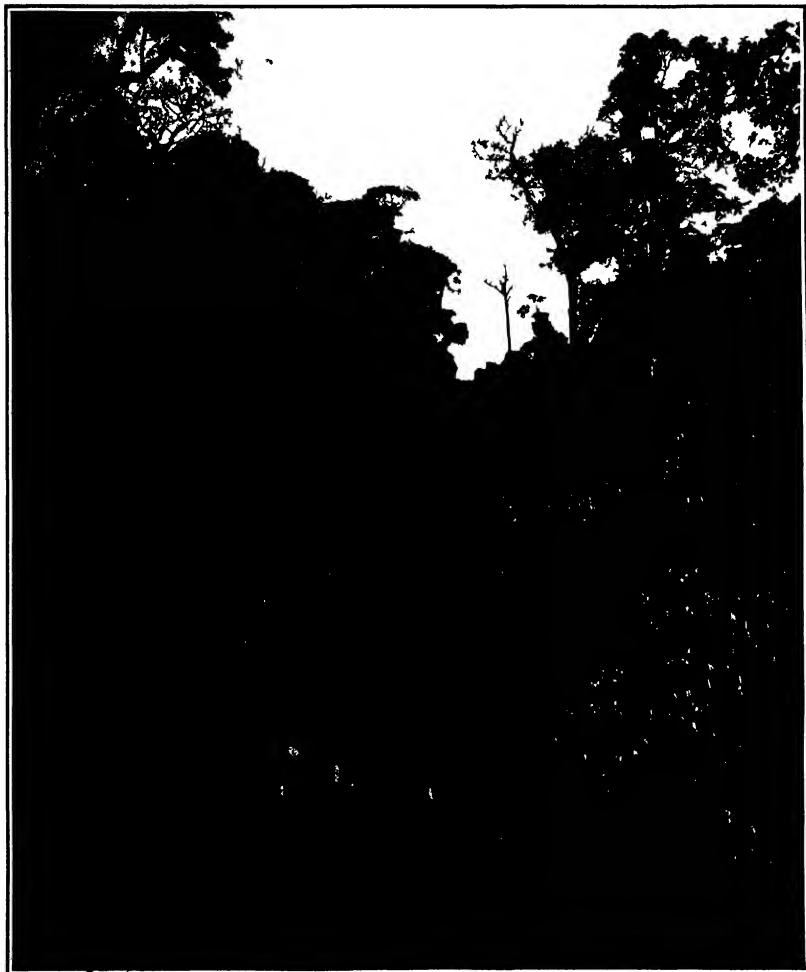
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A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS

Vol. 42, No. 9

NEW YORK, FEBRUARY 1911

Price 10 Cents



Two-track self-acting incline on the Cochin Forest Railway. The railway runs up steep hillsides and is built entirely of local hardwood timber.

A LOGGING RAILWAY THROUGH THE COCHIN JUNGLE, SOUTH INDIA.—[See page 186.]





## A NEW TYPE OF SELF-DISCHARGING COALING VESSEL

BY F. C. COLEMAN

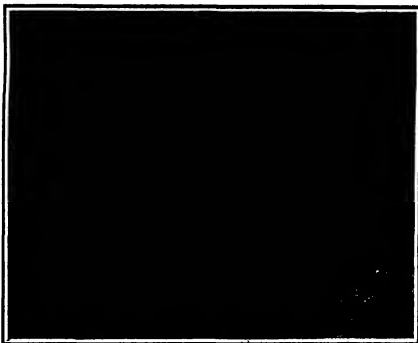
The new system of belt-conveyor discharge has been installed by William Doxford & Sons, Ltd., in a new vessel—the steamship "Pallion"—which they have recently built at the Pallion shipyard, Sunderland, England, to the order of the Dumbell Shipping Company, Ltd. of Newcastle-on-Tyne. This vessel has a length between perpendiculars of 270 feet, and a carrying capacity of 3,100 tons on a 17 feet 10 inches draft. The machinery, comprising triple-expansion engines and multibelted boilers is placed aft. The cable accommodation is fitted in the bridge and the crew space in the fore-cabin, while the navigation accommodation is about midships. The inner bottom is raised and sloped upward in the wings and huilt into the sides of the vessel forming a suitable incline for gravitating the cargo to the conveyors, and also giving the vessel the advantage of being about half loaded when in ballast and bunkers. In the center line is constructed a ship-top fore peak throughout the hold and between this tunnel and the tunnel extending from the engine room to the raised portions of the double bottom are placed the conveyor belts of the Robins pattern one on either side of the vessel. The sides of the tunnel below the level of the hatchways over the belts are open for free access to the belts and carriers at all times. Over these conveyor belts are placed strong iron guide plates extending the full length of the hold and partially covering the belts leaving a 24 inch hatch over a 35-inch belt. This space is covered in the holds by cross-laid hatch covers, 9 inches in length and 5 inches in thick iron, which support the cargo and leave the conveyors to work without carrying the load. At the after end of the hold a portion of the hatch over which the hatch cover is omitted is covered by a horizontal iron slide door operated by a raiser in the tunnel. On the fore side of the bulkhead is constructed an access chamber in free communication with the tunnel which is of such a form as partially to protect the slide door from the cargo when loading, and in the floor of this protection of the chamber is fitted a flap hatch to give access to the hold from the tunnel. At the after end of the cargo space the conveyors rise from the horizontal and pass upward in iron chambers through the machinery space, and thence into the conveyor-driving engine room and discharge the load into guide shoots to the stern of the vessel. These carry the load on to return belts, which are extended forward both sides on the deck. In a simple form these conveyors would terminate at the fore end of the machinery space, or poop front and the load would be delivered into side shoots which telescope and are adjustable for loading barges on either side of the vessel, the shoots being suspended from derricks or other suitable means. In cases where the discharge is required at a higher level than is attained at the poop front and a large range of elevation is necessary, as for instance, for delivery on high quays into trucks and into barges alongside, the conveyors are carried forward and hinged at the poop front, and the delivery and is suspended by suitable tackle through twin masts or framework, and is raised or lowered according to circumstances, delivering the load into telescopic shoots suspended therefrom. When the delivery is into trucks, the "outside" belt delivers directly into a cross conveyor suspended on the masts, which carries the load to the shore side and delivers by shoots into the trucks. A development of this principle has, however, been

applied to the steamship "Pallion," as, in order to obviate the use of delivery shoots, which results in considerable damage, the terminal conveyors are carried in swivel booms, which are raised or lowered and swung overboard to the points of delivery, thus permitting of the cargo being conveyed direct to the truck or barge without shoots. These booms may also be swung across to the reverse side of the vessel, so that both booms can deliver simultaneously into trucks or warehouse. Another important feature of this dis-

The unloading of a cargo of coal is carried on as follows:—Presumably the holds are full and the cargo lying solid, the conveyor is raised to the chamber on the bulkhead over the slide door, at which point the space is naturally only partially filled. The slide door in the covers over the conveyors is drawn back by the operator, and the loose coal over it immediately travels on to the conveyors, which may or may not have been started. If running, then the flow continues; if standing, no difficulty arises because the conveyor is only filled at that point, and the aperture becomes blocked and only clears and flows when the belt is started. Then, if no "bridging" occurs, the after part of the hold is rapidly emptied on to the conveyor which is carrying it on deck and into the receiving trucks or barges. If, however, any "bridging" is threatened, the operator in the tunnel ascends to the chamber, and has free access over the aperture to correct any block. If "bridging" occurs higher in the hold, then he breaks it by means of a pinch bar through perforations in the chamber sides. When the after end of the cargo has run to its natural angle of repose, the operator now in the hold merely removes the first cover and places it aft of the aperture, allowing another portion of cargo to run, he being in a free position to maintain the run and correct any tendency to bridging and to abnormal run. If such do occur and again corrects this and, having run so much more, he removes the next segment of cover, and so on, gradually transferring the aperture from the after end to the fore end of the hold. The slides are carried on travelers on the guide plate sides, and is moved by the operator in the hold forward from stop to stop to correspond with the movement of the aperture thus allowing two men to manipulate a whole cargo at the rate of 500 tons per hour. It is estimated that in regular working the steamship "Pallion" will be un loaded in six hours, or allowing for stoppages in moving barges, and this too with but one stoker, one engineer, two laborers in the hold, and two adjusting the shoots or booms into the hold. The total cost of discharging the cargo of the "Pallion" will not exceed \$80, including the upkeep of the gear, and it is affirmed that the cost of discharging a similar cargo at, for instance, the port of Hamburg, is about \$500, and that in the work no fewer than 110 men are employed for about eleven hours under favorable conditions.

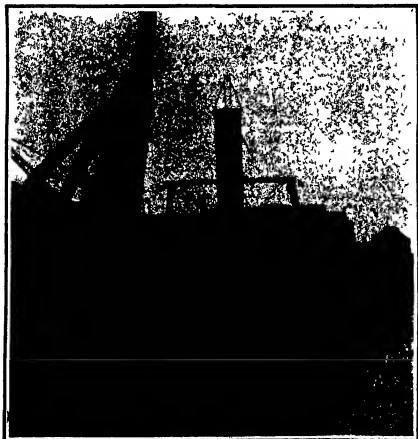
A steamer such as the "Pallion" is free of expense of shore labor, and so may avoid the frequent delays arising from labor troubles. The number of men required is so small, and the time occupied so short, that it would be a simple matter to agree with the crew of the vessel that they receive a fixed extra wage, and the discharge of the cargo becomes part of their ordinary duty. A liberal estimate of the cost, under such conditions, would not reach the sum of two cents per ton, and at this cost the cargo is also weighed.

Roof Paint—Mix 100 lbs. of powdered iron filings, 20 of powdered zinc filings, 40 of powdered American red, with half the quantity of pure cast oil and beat well. An easily brushable mass is obtained.



View of the hold.

The coal falls by gravity onto a conveyor beneath the floor by which it is carried along to the elevator belts of the discharge apertures.



The coal is taken from the bottom of the hold and discharged at an elevation of 40 feet above the water by conveyors and discharging belts operated on the slide. Rate of unloading 500 tons per hour, not two men a ton.

## A NEW TYPE OF SELF-DISCHARGING COALING VESSEL.

charging arrangement lies in the method of delivering the cargo onto the belts from the hold, and enabling the operator to have full control and free access at all times to the conveyors and to the face of the cargo. He may thus superintend and direct the continuous flow, and be in a position promptly to correct any tendency of the cargo to bridge or to choke the aperture leading to the belt, which, being the smallest space the load has to pass through, insures a continuous and uninterrupted delivery.

they receive a fixed extra wage, and the discharge of the cargo becomes part of their ordinary duty. A liberal estimate of the cost, under such conditions, would not reach the sum of two cents per ton, and at this cost the cargo is also weighed.



## NOVEL ELECTRICAL APPLIANCES

BY PERCY COLLINS

The largely increased use of electricity for illuminating stillages, wine-cellar, has rendered obsolete many appliances which were formerly in use—especially those which consume coal-gas when in operation. Hence arose a demand for up-to-date inventions designed to remedy conditions pointed out by progress. Few recent patents illustrate more strikingly the manner in which the ingenuity of mankind keeps pace with the exigencies of modern trade than those which are illustrated in the accompanying photographs. The patentee and manufacturer of these original electrical appliances is Mr. Frederic Hughes, of London, England, and it is to this gentleman that the present writer is indebted for permission to describe and illustrate the apparatus in question. In the case of the electric search-light or cellar-cork, Mr. Hughes claims that the appliance stands alone, being the only perfect, clean, odorless and reliable invention for thoroughly examining brewers' casks, vats, refrigerators, spirit or oil jars, etc.

The main details of the cellar-cork may be appreciated by reference to the accompanying photographs. The reader will see that it consists essentially of a powerful electric glow lamp of peculiar design, supported at the end of a suitably curved rod. The circumference of this lamp is so small that the appliance can be used effectively through any orifice not less than half an inch in diameter.

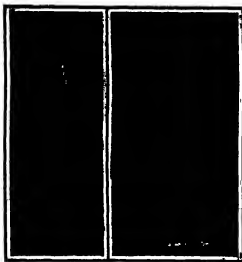
The advantage of this new cellar-cork will be most readily perceived if we compare it with the other appliances which it has superseded. The contact of a gas jet, or a taper flame, with a cold surface (such as the inner wall of a cask or jar) immediately produces a deposit of soot, which may be too slight to attract the notice of the searcher, but will nevertheless discolor and injure to a greater or less extent the fluid with which the vessel is ultimately filled. Similarly, when gas is used to "nose" casks, the products of combustion combined with the CO<sub>2</sub> already in the cask and the pungent odor involved conceal the mustiness and thus deceive the examiner, who accordingly examines in vain a vessel which, as a fact, is far from being so. With the patent searchlight or cellar-cork the examination may be prolonged indefinitely without in the least affecting the actual odor of the contents.

As the heat generated by the lamp of this cellar-cork is very slight, the appliance may be employed for the examination of vessels containing all kinds of inflammable fluids or gases without the smallest risk of explosion. Each torch may be fitted at will with an oblong or circular mirror, which is screwed to the extremity of the appliance beyond the lamp. Upon being passed into the jar or cask, a slight pressure against the side or bottom of the vessel causes the mirror to assume a horizontal position, and by this means a view of the under surface of the vessel is readily obtained. The advantage of this device will be at once apparent to the practical reader, who will readily perceive that by no other means can he so thoroughly explore. Indeed, for the thorough examination of the interiors of hung slaves, bushes, boiler tubes, etc., there is no more perfect appliance obtainable than Hughes's cellar-cork fitted with a reflector of suitable shape.

In conjunction with his patent electric torch, Mr. Hughes has recently introduced another novelty in the thermo-cure or wax-melter. This is an ingenious appliance by means of which a perfectly continuous supply of melted sealing or bottling-wax may be obtained. Like all the most important patents, the apparatus is simple in design and effective in use. When connected by means of the flexible wire with the source of electrical current, it is held in the left hand—the right hand being perfectly free for use. A stick of wax is fitted into the holder and held in place by means of a screw clip. The left thumb (overcoming a spring) presses the wax downward against the heating receptacle, and by slightly inclining this the melted wax flows through a lip on to the letter, bottle, or other object which is to be sealed. Of course, as the wax melts, the stick shortens, and to complete the melting of the entire stick a slight movement of the hand downward on the handle enables the thumb further to press the wax until the whole stick is consumed—the wax holder traveling in a grooved socket.

Whenever it becomes desirable to check the flow of melted wax, the pressure of the thumb is relaxed, when the spring causes the wax to rise just sufficiently to free it from the heating lips. A few of the advantages of the thermo-cure may be summarized. In the first place, the

appliance may be used in the most confined space, and in any circumstances, with absolute safety from the fire risk which is so constant a danger wherever melted gas jets and flexible rubber tubes are employed. Again, the greatest possible economy in the use of wax is obtainable, there being no possibility of waste through carelessness, for the reason that melting is automatically stopped the instant that



Wax melter in use, sealing bottle cork.

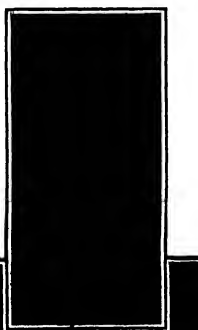
The electric wax melter.

the appliance leaves the hand. No discoloration or smoking of the wax is possible, and the most delicately tinted sealing-wax will remain perfectly true to the original shade. Finally, the sealing can proceed continuously, and in any position, the appliance needing no preliminary preparation, while all spilling or dripping of the wax is entirely avoided. The thermo-cure may therefore be used for sealing letters, postal packets, etc., while articles of value may be safely left in close proximity without the slightest risk of their catching fire.

## The New Agricultural Fertilizer.

The manufacture of fertilizers is one of the most important of chemical industries, but this manufacture, together with the exploitation of the nitrate

## The flexible electric cellar-cork.



Cellar-cork being used, showing lamp and mirror detached.

NOVEL ELECTRICAL APPLIANCES.

beds of Chile and the potash deposits of Bamberg, is now in a critical stage of development, owing to the increasing production of nitrogenous fertilizers by the fixation of atmospheric nitrogen, and also to the results of recent experiments on the fertilizing effect of extremely small quantities of nitrate of soda. The properties of both classes of these new fertilizers are briefly described by René Valler in *Revue de Chimie pure et appliquée*.

## NITROGENOUS FERTILIZERS OBTAINED FROM THE ATMOSPHERE.

Nitrate Neutral nitrate lime, containing 13 per cent of nitrogen, has been manufactured at Norderdalen, Norway, since 1905. It is an excellent fertilizer and equal in all respects to Chile nitrate. It can be mixed with superphosphate without causing appreciable loss of nitrogen or retrogradation of phosphoric acid. Its hygroscopic character makes its application somewhat inconvenient, but it possesses, in contrast with Chile nitrate, the advantage of adding to the soil lime, an indispensable plant food, instead of soda, the accumulation of which may be injurious to vegetation.

It appears probable that Chile saltpetre will, before long, be supplanted by nitrate obtained from atmospheric nitrogen. The Norderdalen type and other processes now in use are commercially practicable in their present form, only where water power is cheap, but these processes are susceptible of great improvement. An efficient way out of that most other processes of industrial chemistry would make it commercially feasible to produce nitrate everywhere. At present the nitrate obtained from the air is neutralized with lime, while most of the world's production of nitric acid is employed in the manufacture of superphosphates. If this nitric acid could be used to convert the tribasic calcium phosphate into the superphosphate, an enormous saving could be effected, and a fertilizer produced which would contain both soluble phosphoric acid and nitrogen in a form suitable for assimilation, and would drive every other nitrogenous or phosphated fertilizer out of the market.

Cyanamide. The difficulty of applying the light cyanamide powder has been overcome by adding a little water, and the product is a thick, white, cream of the crude cyanamide and forms a coarse powder called granulated cyanamide which is much more convenient to use. A still better form is oil cyanamide, made by mixing the powder with 4 per cent of crude petroleum. The proportion of nitrogen in commercial cyanamide has been increased by improvements in manufacture from 15 per cent to about 20 per cent, that of pure calcium cyanamide being about 25 per cent. Cyanamide has now fairly entered into agricultural practice. The trust which controls the sale of the product in Germany and Italy sold 3,000 tons of cyanamide in the first half of last year.

Calcium cyanamide (CN<sub>2</sub>Ca), treated with water and carbon dioxide yields dicyanamide (C<sub>2</sub>N<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>) in the form of nearly insoluble colorless crystals, which contain 58 per cent of nitrogen and form the richest nitrogenous fertilizer ever produced. In some cases the cost of production of dicyanamide may be counterbalanced by the economy in transportation. Applied to wheat in the quantity of 30 or 40 pounds per acre, it has produced excellent results.

Gullin has proved that more than one-fifth of the nitrogen of cyanamide is converted into ammonia in one week and more than one-third in two weeks, by the action of soil moisture. Munz and Nottin observed in two months a production of nitric acid corresponding to 11/12 of the nitrogen of the cyanamide added to the soil.

The poisonous action on plants which was at first attributed to cyanamide fertilizers appears to have no existence or to be due to impurities. The germinating power of wheat treated with pure cyanamide or dicyanamide is not diminished but is sometimes increased. Munz and Nottin, however, observed a temporary arrest of growth after the application of cyanamide in hot dry weather, and therefore advised the selection of a wet period for its application.

## IF FERTILIZERS CONTAINING MANGANESE.

Manganese is widely distributed in nature and plays an important part in the formation of the diastases which are the principal agents in vegetable synthesis. Nagasawa, in Japan applied manganese sulphate to rice plantations in quantities equivalent to from 10 to 150 pounds of Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> per acre, and obtained increases of crop of 25 to 37 per cent. The beneficial effect persisted to a smaller extent, through the following year. Manganese chloride, a waste product of the chlorine industry, exerts a similar action.



# Correspondence.

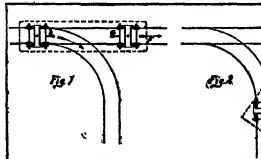
## HOW A TROLLEY CAR REVERSED ITS POSITION.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:  
On January 30th, 1910, about 3.40 P. M., a curious and unique accident happened in regard to limited car No. 230, D. & F., at the crossing of Main and Ash Streets, Lima, Ohio. The phenomenon was so remarkable that I have desired to make this report of it, and if you see fit you may lay it before your readers.

The car was headed south on Main Street, running perhaps ten or twelve miles per hour. At the switch in Ash Street, where connection is made with the city line, the rear truck left the main line and followed the Ash Street line, and the car body turned completely and reversed almost completely to the main line. Neither truck was at any time off the rails and even the trolley wheel was still in working contact with the overhead wire when the car stopped. The brake rod connections were all stripped and torn loose, also the wire connections from controllers to motors were severed. No one was seriously injured, and a casual observer coming on the scene, as the writer did, a few minutes after the occurrence would not notice that anything out of the ordinary had transpired.

The attached diagram shows five positions assumed by the car in the wonderful evolution. The relative position of the truck with reference to the body and also to the tracks is shown, the end of the truck normally positioned toward the center of the car body being indicated by a and b. The end of the car headed south before the accident is indicated in this figure by P.

Fig. 1 indicates the status of things when the truck



is about to turn from the main line. Figs. 2, 3, 4, and 5 show intermediate positions, and Fig. 5 the car when it came to rest. E. B. RARSEN, Piqua, Ohio.

[The mere momentum of the car would not account for the return of the car to the main line. The fact that the trolley wheel remained on the line suggests that the motor man must have reversed the rear motor, which acted to push the car back in the reversed position to the main line.—Ed.]

## MINE SHOT REPLY TO MRS. WORKMAN.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:  
Having observed in your issue of February 12th a letter in reference to the altitude of Mount Huascarán and my record from Mrs. Workman, may I state my own position a little more definitely?

After making the ascent of Mount Huascarán, north peak, September 2nd, 1908, of which I brought back absolute proof in the shape of photographs, I gave my reasons for believing the mountain to have an altitude of 16,000 feet, although on some of the high winds I had been unable to take hypsometric observations on the summit.

Naturally, I did not expect the scientific world or anyone else to regard my estimate as an exact measurement. If anyone did so, I cannot be responsible.

It was, of course, quite within the province of any one to take so great an interest in the matter as to spend some thousands of dollars in sending engineers to Peru to make a triangulation of the mountain, and to publish this as the absolute height of Huascarán.

There is, however, something to be said in regard to the accuracy of such triangulations. Permit me to quote from the recent work of Mr. A. L. Mumm (of the English Alpine Club), "Five Months in the Himalayas":

"The results of triangulation do not always agree and even when they perfectly coincide, they cannot be accepted as absolutely unimpeachable. There is good reason to suppose that the effect of refraction on the horizon of distant peaks for the altitudes made by it is too perfectly accurate and the higher and more numerous the peaks, the more the possibility of error. Measuring these facts in mind, it will be apparent that anyone who starts to form a doublet opinion as to what persons are entitled to the honor of having reached the highest altitudes has a very pretty sample to unravel and I will leave it at that. The men who made the ascent of Everest, 29,000 feet, have no claim to any record, and go out of the way like a good sportsman to establish the record of a professional."

Another distinguished authority is Dr. Norman J. Collins (also of the English Alpine Club), who has had

much experience in the Himalayas and who stated to Prof. H. G. Parker that the amount to be allowed for refraction on high snow mountains was most uncertain, that therefore the altitude of the great Himalayan peaks, though given in precise figures, was still in doubt.

Furthermore, I once met a former member of the British Royal Engineers who told me that the triangulation of the well-known mountain K' recently at (taken by the Duke of the Abruzzi) was made by a friend of his, whose allowance for refraction was double what he thought should have been made. With the smaller allowance K' would be about 4000 feet higher than it is now regarded.

It is therefore obvious that if similar allowance for refraction is made on Huascarán, it may easily happen, especially in a country with a much drier atmosphere than India, that the mountain is 1,000 or 2,000 feet higher than has been figured.

Accordingly while it is perfectly proper for all who desire to do so to accept the figures of the triangulation, regardless of the careful estimates of myself and of the Swiss guides and of the evidence of the photographs, no one need feel obliged to accept those figures as final.

As to Anconagua being the highest of the Andes, I may say that aside from Huascarán there are several mountains which may prove when carefully measured to be of greater altitude than Anconagua. In this connection it may not be wholly out of place to say that while Mrs. Panny Bullock Workman has, according to the newspapers frequently announced her readiness to furnish evidence of the altitudes claimed by her, when I wrote to her stating that I should be glad to see the figures of her observations, an in letter shared by some other Alpinists she informed me that they had not been published in any of her

writings, nor did she offer to give them to me personally. ANNIE B. BUCK, New York, N. Y.

## The Aeronautic Show at Moscow.

The first exhibition of aeroplanes, balloons, and aerostatic apparatus exclusively to be held in the United States was held in Mechanics Hall, Boston, Mass., from the 10th to the 23rd instant. This first Aeronautic Show, although fairly representative of the different experiments, was somewhat of a disappointment in that there were no motor-driven heavier-than-air machines exhibited that have actually shown, while 50 per cent of the power machines were shown without motors. This fact, however, did not deter one from getting a good idea of the design and construction of the aeroplanes proper.

The question of reliable light weight motors at a reasonable price is still a burning one, and a fortune awaits the man who will produce such motors—of 25 and 50 horsepower respectively—to supply them to aviators upon easy terms. Eight different makes of motors were on exhibition, three of these (Curtiss, Cameron, and Harriman) being of the 4-cylinder 4-cyle type, two (Waterman and Duryea) of the 4-cyle type, two (Curtiss and Duryea) of the 6-cyle type, and one (Curtiss and Duryea) of the 8-cyle, 8-cylinder and 12-cylinder V type respectively. An Elbridge 3-cylinder water-cooled 2-cyle motor was also shown on the Wright type biplane of P. H. Sherman. The 25-horsepower Curtiss 4-cylinder motor was shown upon the Elbert type monoplane of Stanley V. Beach, it is air-cooled by means of thin copper strips welded to the cylinders. The Cameron 2-cylinder and a 4-cylinder of 20 and 25 horsepower respectively are also air-cooled with the usual cast fan. The smaller of these two motors and the Duryea motor both weigh about 300 pounds, or approximately 50 pounds the 25-horsepower Curtiss 4-cyle water-cooled motor with radiator and water. The reason for this apparent superiority of the water-cooled motor as regards weight is found in the fact that the Curtiss is a specially constructed aerostatic motor, whereas the air-cooled motors mentioned are simply automobile motors adapted to aerostatic use and not lightened nearly as much as it is possible to lighten them. The same may be said of the Elbridge, which is a marine motor. The Waterman, another light marine motor built for canoes and dories, weighs just under 100 pounds complete with flywheel, which was designed with, and develops about 15 horsepower.

The Harriman is a special 4-cylinder motor of 50 horsepower and weighs 300 pounds. It has copper water jackets and aluminum crankcase. The bore and stroke are 5 inches. The 4-cylinder V-type motor has crankcase and cylinders cast of malleable iron. The cylinders are lined with cast iron and the pistons also are of a special grade of this metal. The bore and stroke are each 4 inches. The output is 50 horse power at 1,300 revolutions per minute. The 12-cylinder V-type Duryea motor is constructed similarly to the 4-cylinder on each pair of cylinders being cast in one piece with the upper part of the crankcase and afterward being bored and lined with cast iron. This motor is beautifully finished. Its weight complete is 1645 pounds, and an output of 100 horse power is claimed for it at 1,800 revolutions per minute.

Upon entering the large main hall of Mechanics Building the visitor saw on his right the Elbert and Anconagua type monoplanes of the 16-horsepower Airplane and Althip type of New York. The former of these machines which is fitted with a 4-cylinder air-cooled 2-cyle motor has lately been flown and was very efficient. A novel type of steering gear having two superimposed wheels was also fitted. Opposite these two machines were two Wright type biplanes of Frederick P. Sherman. The finished ones of these two machines had movable flaps upon the rear edges of the wings instead of the warping arrangement used by the Wrights.

Proceeding onward toward the hall, the visitor next saw two new monoplanes—one (the Moroc) a small mountable biplane type machine having wings laid upon steel tubing and the other (the Burlington) a

large monoplane with raised inclined struts running from the bottom of the side control frame to the ends of the wings. A 4-cylinder 4-cyle Harriman motor, disconnected to a large and thick propeller, was placed at the front of this monoplane.

A biplane that attracted considerable attention was that of Victor Tapp. This had a rectangular central body and extremely thick wings with a deep curvature. A novel revolving cylinder acyclic motor (the L. A. W.) was involved in front, so the propeller mounted upon it could be directed upward or downward.

The Hayward and Erickson biplanes were constructed entirely of bamboo. In general outline they resembled the Curtiss, as did also the Blaine & Downey and the Reed machines. The Erickson biplane had a 1/2-horsepower automobile motor weighing 240 pounds fitted, the weight of the biplane alone being but 280 pounds.

The first place of prominence on exhibition was the Harriman machine, built by the Harriman-Burgess Company, a well known B. B. building concern of Marblehead, Mass. This machine, in general appearance resembling the Curtiss biplane, was mounted upon three round skids as wheels being used. The horizontal rudder was worked by the aviator's feet and the vertical rudder by hand. A long inclined rod was placed on each side of the skid, to which the aviator can cling. Springs were introduced in the guy wires, no turnbuckles being used. The poles that carry the front and rear rudders were all hollow. A Curtiss motor with a 4-bladed propeller of Mr. Harriman's design was fitted. The machine complete weighed less than 400 pounds. The propeller is said to give 250 pounds thrust, which, it is claimed, is ample to start the machine on any ground or water. The stability device for lateral control was not exhibited.

There were also several gliders on view, and a large number of models of all kinds, most of which were built by boys. The Aeronautic Show at Moscow was a creditable one. It leads one to believe that America will soon catch up to Europe in the aerostatic industry as it did with the automobile.

Balloons were also in evidence. Among them was the New England Aero Club's balloon in the very mid die of the hall, inflated almost to its full capacity. This balloon has made 45 ascensions and has traveled 1,551 miles. Last November it carried the basket of a 20-horsepower 180,000 cubic foot balloon. A huge hot-air balloon from which a trapeze performer made five parachute drops from Conist Island last summer is also to be seen.

# THE COCHIN FOREST RAILWAY

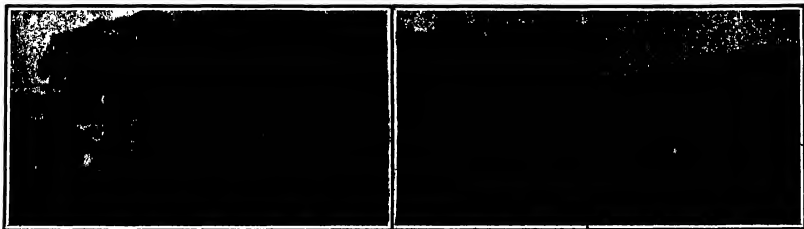
BY EDWARD HARRAN

The Cochin Forest Tramey is an interesting little line of tramway on the meter gauge in the semi-independent State of Cochin in South India. It runs along to the north of the 10th parallel of latitude and to the east of the 75th parallel of longitude. It is the only line of the forest tramways of Cochin form one of the most valuable assets of the State, their approximate area being 625 square miles, or nearly one-half of its entire extent. Their commercial importance it is stated, was vaguely realised as far back as 1820, when the first attempts were made to attempt to work them were of the usual spasmodic and unsystematic nature which characterized original efforts in forestry throughout the Indian peninsula. In the year 1835, however, a regular forest department, under the control of a European officer, was instituted, and the forest tramways were at once placed on foot. Though the department throughout this period brought in a certain amount of revenue to the

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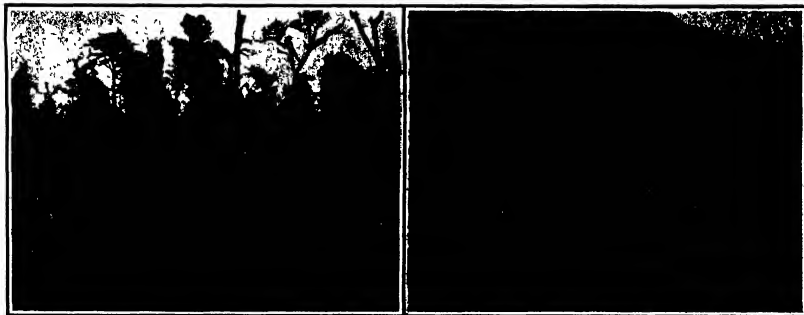
logs both at the head and foot of the slide proved expensive. To remedy this latter, the conversion of the slide into another self-acting incline was decided upon. To remedy the first, Mr. Alvar Oberty recommended, and the Durbar sanctioned, another extension of the tramway, one of 15 miles to Chalakudi, to meet the Shoranur-Cochin Railway at that station, a connection, with the acquiescence of the Madras Railway authorities, being made between the railway and tramway there.

Today the total length of the line as it stands computed at the time of writing is 49½ miles divided into three sections. The first section extends from mile 1 to 21, the second from mile 23½ to 27, and the third from mile 28 to 49½. The first and second sections are connected by a self-acting wire rope manipulated double way of 1½ miles, while the second and third sections are similarly connected by another incline a mile in length.



**The logging locomotive, truck, and caboose**

Stone-and-timber bridge on the line of the Cochin Forest Railway



**Elephants moving logs for shipment.**

A train of timber cars. Note the density of the forest growth.

### THE COCHIN FOREST RAILWAY

[illegible]

His Highness the Maharaja of Cochin to the Parambikolam and Neillampatty forests in October, 1903, suggested a revision of this scheme which provided for the extension of the proposed tramway to Parambikolam, an additional 12½ miles, the experience gained during the preceding year or two having shown conclusively that the Parambikolam River could not be relied upon to carry every year anything like a year's full yield of timber. A survey of this extension was made by Mr. Haldwell, a specially engaged engineer, in 1904

According to the original scheme, the traction of the timber trucks was to have been by manual labor, but when the length of the proposed line amounted to 31 miles, it was recognized that manual labor would prove too costly. The project was then referred to the Forestry Division of the State of Washington, and in September, 1904, locomotive engine traction was finally decided upon. The modifications of the original scheme already alluded to necessitated a full re-consideration of other portions of it, chiefly the proposed combined river and road transport which it was anticipated would not clear the accumulations of timber. Also in practical working it was found that a timber slide, especially in the case of lengthy, and heavy loads, was most satisfactory, and the handling of

Throughout its whole length the Cochin Forest State Railway is excellently constructed. The gage is 1 meter; the average gradient of the line 1 in 80 and the maximum gradient 1 in 25 which gradient occurs on the third of the five inclines which have been embodied in the construction.

The inclined ways are so constructed as to be self-acting, and three of them are situated in series between 21 and 23 miles and the other two between 24 1/2 and 26 1/2 miles. They are worked by means of cables controlled from brakes house by gear brakes independent of each other, and consisting of horizontal wheels round which the cables pass two or three times. The cables are densely studded with soft iron over points at the ends of the cables. The points are so arranged that a descending wheel, which travels down by force of gravity, requires practically no up-hill shunting, the locomotive phasing the truck, which on being uncoupled is then ready for the descent. In some cases, however, empty trucks going up have to be hand-shunted after being phased, in order to place them on the side of the upper mainline. The trucks are of the open top type. The speed of the cars is about 100 miles per hour. The speed of the trucks is about 10 miles per hour.

pass over a grooved pulley 4 feet diameter, after which it forms a figure 8 over a loom pulley back again over another 4 foot pulley mounted on the same shaft as the first and thence to the other line.

On the vertical shaft on which these two pulleys are, and on which the rope binds are mounted two horizontal drum pulleys each 4 feet diameter 3/4 inches broad with 1/4 inch flange. Steel hand brakes 3/16 inch thick and 8 inches broad studded with hard wood brake blocks 6 inches long can be applied to these drums by powerful linked levers controlled by hand wheels and screws, to control the speed of the lead descending the incline. The grooved pulleys round which the rope binds are fitted in with leather sections on end grains to give a good grip. The cast iron portion of these wheels is suitably dovetailed out to contain the leather padding.

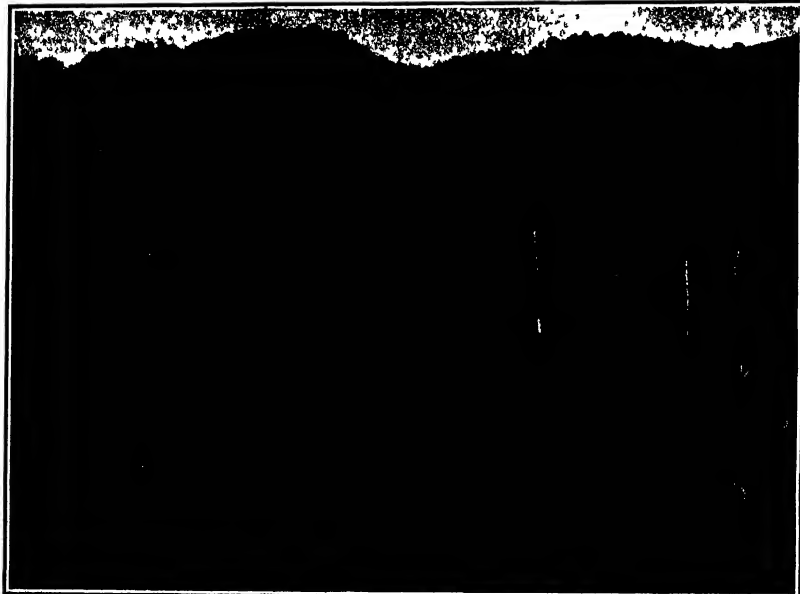
The first second and fourth of the five inclined ways are on curves round which curves the wire ropes are guided by vertical rollers. On the straight portion of the incline the cable is supported by horizontal rollers placed 30 feet apart. Illustrations of one of

cient examination Prof Moser has yet made. In this cave were found four such layers of clay separated by layers of ashes. While relics of the new stone-age were found in the first and second layer of ashes. In the third and fourth layers were discovered remains of the palaeolithic land snails the bony scales of the swamp-turtle and a mammalian fauna such as the otter beaver goat stag and wild boar which manifestly point to the fact that the first cave-dwellers resorted to the fresh water districts for their subsistence while the later cave-dwellers found a much more generous source of nourishment along the coast. An important fact is the presence in these oldest layers of frequent tools and to the same layers belong the especially interesting art objects engravings on animal bone described pictorially many of them in the Professor's report. On a polished piece of stag horn for instance may be seen the red ink made drawing of a human figure that stands between two tree-trunks showing many branches. As in the drawing of children the head is represented by a round depression and hands and feet by stilt slightly curved

Moser cave and very recently the Professor found a well preserved human lower jawbone in the so-called Cave of the Bears Sandstone marked with grooves made by whetting the bone tools on them. prove that the caves were also the workshops of the cave-dwellers. A high degree of development is shown by the pottery the vessels formed by a free hand are most fold not only in their form and material but also in their decoration one piece being marked with a broad spiral band immediately on either side of which the depressions of the vessels are filled with white clay in which are the ears of corn and leaves of palm which ornament the band. This piece almost reminds one of the decoration of Mycenaean pottery.

#### Have Fishes Memory?

Studies as to the mental powers of animals have already been made on several occasions but only recently have inquiries been made as to whether fishes have a memory or not. Results have shown traces of it in many both in coral reefs and in the open sea. Experiments have been made with a



Part of the main line with empty trains on a grade  
THE COCHIN FOREST RAILWAY

these inclines are here reproduced. The rolling stock of the Cochin Forest Railway consists solely of open trucks specially designed for carrying timber with swiveling bolsters and chilled cast-iron wheels.

#### The Art of the Cave-Dweller.

A very noteworthy discovery of caves which has brought to light a number of art objects of the oldest inhabitants is reported by Prof Moser in a late number of *Monatsh*. In a depression which has the appearance of a trough of the valley extending from the Karst (Austrian) plateau Trieste near the Dolomite, to the Vindhya Mountains are found numerous caves to which leads a gate of rock under the projecting wall of the cliff. Their interiors are rooms small or spacious, which were first only places of sojourn for the Karst cave-dwellers who originally made later settled down to habitual residence in them. That the caves have served a long time as abodes is proven by the fact that in them are found frequent very thick layers of clay interstratified twice, three, four times, with ashes. In the latter are relics of the household. Among the caves visited the Rothmar cave, situated near the viaduct of the Southern Railway, near Neobresna, was subjected to the most per-

sonal examination. On a second engraved piece of bone a jawbone that was found in the third layer of ashes is pictured with a contour of almost straight lines a wild boar of which the head is almost triangular the tusks being clearly drawn the eyes and ears being faintly indicated the bristles on its back appearing with perfect distinctness and the curl in its tail being rather indistinct. That the artist of the cave sought to reproduce the aspect of nature in which he had often seen and slain the wild boar is shown by the high grass in which the animal stands and which is represented by strong incisions. On a third bone is clearly recognized the head of a sea turtle with eyes and deeply chisel mouth the scales and folds of the skin are indicated by easy strokes and above the head is a sufficient hint of a fluttering dragonfly and not far from it are tufts of reed. The two last engraved pieces of bone the Professor attributes to an early settlement in the new stone-age while the awkward portrayal of the man may be considered as derived from the old stone-age.

While the layers of ashes contained a generous number of finely worked tools of bone and pieces of ornament, the occurrence of relics of man himself is restricted to two specimens with additions from the

eral fishes but the most striking results have been obtained with the gray perch which lives abundantly on a small artificial island. Some of the perch were taken and colored red and were then put into the tank where the perch was with several other silver-colored sardines. Of course if normal ones were at once at lack and eaten but it was not till hungry that the perch made a tentative meal of one of the red sardines on recognizing the sardine flavor however he promptly demolished it. The remainder of the specimens in the tank devour the sardines irrespective of color thus showing not only that it is a memory but also the power of differentiation. Subsequently sardines colored red and blue were placed in the tank together with the silver ones. The same scene was repeated the blue ones not being eaten till the others were eaten and hunger compelled investigation of the new comers. After this introduction the perch ate the sardines of all the colors with out any difficulty. Some specimens of the sea urchin (artificial) were then fastened to the blue sardines. These were at once avoided by the perch who promptly got out of the way of the new comers. This showed traces of memory as the results of contact with the sea urchin were clearly shown and recognized.

## THE NEWLY DISCOVERED GOBLIN SHARK OF JAPAN

BY DR. L. HUSSAKOF

Every now and then the zoological world is startled by the announcement of the discovery in Japanese waters of some very rare or very ancient type of animal. So often is this the case that zoologists have come to look upon the deep waters of Japan as a sort of naturalists' candy store—a preserve in which the all manner of interesting animals some of them of an archaic type long extinct in other parts of the world. The expectation of remarkable discoveries in these waters is so strong that I have heard a distinguished American zoologist, who is himself well acquainted with Japanese waters say that he would not be greatly surprised to hear some day that a real Mesozoic or Ichthyosaurus had been hooked in the depths of *Kuro Shimo* or warm Biko Current of Japan.

It is in these waters that Japanese fishermen occasionally take on their lines a shark whose grotesqueness has won him among natives the name of *Tsunaguro* or goblin shark. One of these "goblins" came into the hands of President

David Starr Jordan of Leland Stanford University a couple years ago and was at once recognized as an interesting animal type whose close relatives had long since become extinct. President Jordan described it under the name of *Mitsukurina owstoni*—the name being given at the same time the late Prof. Kahlil Mitsukurin won for a quarter of a century was the leading light of Japanese zoology and Mr. Alan Owston, a natural history dealer of Yokohama, who was instrumental in securing the specimen. This name, by the way, does not stand at the present day but must be replaced by *Spharoprhynchus*—a name which had previously been applied to the teeth of the extinct species of this type of shark found in the rocks of the Chalk period, in different parts of the world. In accordance with scientific usage, therefore, the Japanese shark described by President Jordan must now be known as *Spharoprhynchus* *owstoni*.

It is now to be recorded that a second species of goblin shark has turned up in a most unexpected way. It happened thus. All of the sharks caught in Japan in the past years and sent to the various museums—about twenty in all—were looked upon as belonging to the same species, *S. owstoni*. No one had ever thought of comparing several specimens. In fact, these sharks are so rare in museums that comparison is generally quite out of the question. It was therefore a pleasure for the writer to have had the opportunity of comparing several specimens in the collections at Columbia University and the American Museum of Natural History and to find among them a new species of the goblin shark. This has recently been described in the Bulletin of the American Museum of Natural History and to find among them a new species of the goblin shark. This has recently been described in the Bulletin of the American Museum of Natural History and to find among them a new species of the goblin shark.

The specific name being given in honor of President Jordan, our greatest authority on the fish of Japan.

Now to come to the fish himself. As seen in the illustration (Fig. 1) the new shark is certainly grotesque, well deserving his sobriquet "goblin." The largest specimen in this country is one in the National Museum at Washington measuring over eleven feet, and the species probably attains a length of fifteen. Fortunately it is not given to frequenting the bathing beach, but keeps to deeper waters—usually about fifty fathoms. As is generally the case with fish from deep water, this shark is soft and pliable. Even after hardening in a preservative for several months, it can be rolled into a ball. The most remarkable feature is the curious elongated "nose" (shown in Fig. 2). It is this together with its protruding jaw and small beady eyes, that give the shark that ugly

appearance. The teeth (Fig. 3) are sharp and slender, serrated like the pointed and of an awl. They constitute a most effective weapon, which must be fitted with discretion even on the laboratory table. As to the peculiar anatomical characters, suffice it to say that in the total make-up it is so different from all other sharks that President Jordan was at first inclined to classify the genus to which it belongs in a special family by itself.

As to the differences between the new species and the one already known, we need say only a few words



Fig. 1.—The newly discovered goblin shark (*Spharoprhynchus* Jordan).

The pictures show the difference at a glance even to the layman in matters ichthyological. The new form (lower picture) is distinguished by a much less protruding jaw, by a very much smaller spiracle (the minute secondary gill pores seen at some distance back of the eye), and by the fact that the eye is situated opposite the middle of the jaw instead of back of it. These features are quite sufficient, in the opinion of experts, for separating our goblin as a distinct "kind." To the general reader they may perhaps be of interest as examples of the degree of difference which are used by specialists to distinguish species of fish.

#### PIPE, CIGARETTE, AND CIGAR.

The question as to which of the three forms of smoking, the pipe the cigarette, or the cigar, introduces the greatest quantity of nicotine into the smoker's system has never obtained a completely decisive answer, although it has received considerable discussion from time to time. At one time it was freely asserted that the tobacco which contained the

ter of fast carbon monoxide is invariably found in all tobacco smoke, and that circumstance should be sufficient to warn all smokers against inhaling it persistently. Theories as to what happens in the combustion of tobacco in the various ways it is smoked, and the extent to which the various products of combustion are formed and retained in the tobacco. The most effective condenser, of course, is the pipe, and there can be little doubt as to the length of the stem a comparatively small proportion of these condensation products reaches the mouth.

In the cigar, on the contrary, the condensing process has a tendency to travel throughout the cigar, at all events, as the cigar gets shorter the condensed product area gradually reaches the mouth and eventually the products are consumed there by the heat of the burning end. It has been said by pipe smokers that no cigar is worth smoking after one-half of it has been consumed, which seems to be a practical realization of theoretical considerations very suitable for application by millionaires. Again, a cigar that has been partially smoked and then allowed to go is decidedly unpleasant when re-lit, owing doubtless to the spread of condensation products to the mouth end. In the case of the pipe, the burning area is stationary, in the same place, it never comes near the mouth, and therefore the probability is that the condensation products do not reach the mouth in, at any rate, appreciable quantities. In the cigarette the condensation products eventually reach the mouth, but there is in this case less chance of condensation products forming as the combustion is unimpeded, the tobacco being freely in contact with the atmosphere. The question of moisture, however, must not be left out in these considerations, for it is obvious that damp tobacco will form condensation products more readily than dry tobacco. It is probable, therefore, that the dry cigar or cigarette gives off less poisonous products than a damp one does, but not everyone smokes from choice a new cigar or an old cigarette. It is reasonably dependent on the amount of nicotine reaching the mouth does not necessarily depend on the amount in the tobacco, but on the form in which it is smoked. In drawing this conclusion regard must, of course, be had to the quantity of tobacco smoked, but if the conclusion is correct, the pipe would come first as the least harmful form of tobacco smoking, then the cigarette, and lastly the cigar—Lancet.

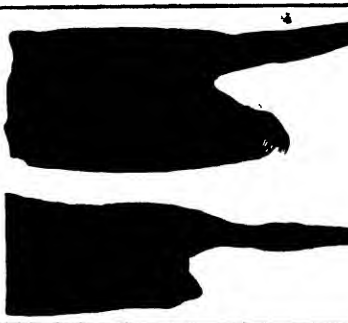


Fig. 2.—Under side of head of Jordan's goblin shark, showing mouth and teeth.

Fig. 3.—Heads of two species of goblin shark. The lower one is that of the newly discovered Jordan's goblin shark (*Spharoprhynchus* Jordan).

#### THE NEWLY DISCOVERED GOBLIN SHARK OF JAPAN.

highest amount of nicotine necessarily tended to be the most injurious, no matter in what form it was smoked, but we now know that the form of smoking plays an important part. There was a theory that not in all three cases was the original nicotine in the tobacco converted as such to the mouth, sometimes it was destroyed by effective combustion, while at other times pyridine was responsible for toxic effects. According to the theory which was all on the right track the cigarette was least harmful, because the tobacco along the thin paper wrapper was exposed freely to the air and as a consequence the tobacco was well burnt and all nicotine was destroyed. Against this it was held that in such a case one poison displaced only for another one to be elaborated, and carbon monoxide was found in marked quantity as a poisonous constituent of cigarette smoke. As a mat-

ter of fact, carbon monoxide is invariably found in all tobacco smoke, and that circumstance should be sufficient to warn all smokers against inhaling it persistently. Theories as to what happens in the combustion of tobacco in the various ways it is smoked, and the extent to which the various products of combustion are formed and retained in the tobacco. The most effective condenser, of course, is the pipe, and there can be little doubt as to the length of the stem a comparatively small proportion of these condensation products reaches the mouth. In the cigar, on the contrary, the condensing process has a tendency to travel throughout the cigar, at all events, as the cigar gets shorter the condensed product area gradually reaches the mouth and eventually the products are consumed there by the heat of the burning end. It has been said by pipe smokers that no cigar is worth smoking after one-half of it has been consumed, which seems to be a practical realization of theoretical considerations very suitable for application by millionaires. Again, a cigar that has been partially smoked and then allowed to go is decidedly unpleasant when re-lit, owing doubtless to the spread of condensation products to the mouth end. In the case of the pipe, the burning area is stationary, in the same place, it never comes near the mouth, and therefore the probability is that the condensation products do not reach the mouth in, at any rate, appreciable quantities. In the cigarette the condensation products eventually reach the mouth, but there is in this case less chance of condensation products forming as the combustion is unimpeded, the tobacco being freely in contact with the atmosphere. The question of moisture, however, must not be left out in these considerations, for it is obvious that damp tobacco will form condensation products more readily than dry tobacco. It is probable, therefore, that the dry cigar or cigarette gives off less poisonous products than a damp one does, but not everyone smokes from choice a new cigar or an old cigarette. It is reasonably dependent on the amount of nicotine reaching the mouth does not necessarily depend on the amount in the tobacco, but on the form in which it is smoked. In drawing this conclusion regard must, of course, be had to the quantity of tobacco smoked, but if the conclusion is correct, the pipe would come first as the least harmful form of tobacco smoking, then the cigarette, and lastly the cigar—Lancet.

It has often been remarked that the centers of seismic and volcanic activity move slowly westward in a recent issue of the *Physikalische Zeitschrift*, it is pointed out that the westward movement by retreating the old hypothesis of a solid nucleus, separated by a thin stratum of liquid from the earth's crust, and rotating slightly less rapidly than the latter. According to Wehner's calculations, the nucleus makes a complete revolution relatively to the surface of the earth, in 860 years. (There is room for a good deal of uncertainty in such calculations.) Wehner supposes, further, that the nucleus is studded with protuberances which are centers of activity and that these protuberances, coming into contact with the weak parts of the earth's crust, cause earthquakes and volcanic eruptions. From this theory and the records of earthquakes observed by seismographs of the Atlantic Ocean during the last half century, Wehner concludes that a group of these formidable protuberances has now arrived under the region between 1 deg. N. and 1 deg. E. latitude and 27 and 44 deg. W. longitude, and that danger is imminent in that part of the world.



## FIREPROOF ARCH.

Pictured in the accompanying engraving is an arch used more particularly in fireproof work, which is of very simple construction. It consists of two top sections, each provided with an air space usually designated as a "vacuum." The usual I-beams be-



## FIREPROOF ARCH.

traces which the arch is formed are indicated at A and B. Each arch member comprises a top panel C, a bottom panel D and a side panel E thus giving the member the general shape of a wedge. At the point of the wedge one of the members is provided with a tongue F, while the other member is formed with a groove adapted to receive this tongue. When the two sections are fitted between the I-beams they are thus interlocked. A weight placed on the interlocked tile produces an outward spreading thrust against the two I-beams A and B. To resist this tongue the I-beams are braced by means of cross rods, as indicated by dotted lines in the illustration. Our illustration shows part of the upper panel of one of the sections broken away to reveal the reinforcing which, in this case, consists of a netting of heavy iron or steel wire imbedded within the material. The lower panel is braced by means of bars G imbedded therein which extend up into the tongue F. They take the end thrust and materially strengthen this portion of the arch. The "vacuum" or wedge-shaped air spaces formed between the panels serve to prevent undue travel of heat through the arch in case of fire. A building having a large proportion of such arches is therefore to that extent rendered more nearly fireproof than would otherwise be the case. The inventor of this arch is Mr. Eugene F. Fitzpatrick, of 158 Withers Street, Brooklyn, N. Y.

## MUFFLER FOR TELEPHONE TRANSMITTERS.

Unless one is using the telephone in a booth or in a quiet room it is impossible for him to exclude all local disturbing noises by stopping the ear that is not applied to the receiver, for the reason that the noise reach him by way of the transmitter of his own instrument. In order to eliminate all such disturbing sounds a very simple device has recently been invented which may be applied to any telephone transmitter. This device is illustrated in the accompanying engraving. It is extremely simple, consisting of two members hinged together, one of them being a ring-shaped plate adapted to be placed over the mouth of the transmitter and provided with ears which are bent back over the outside of the transmitter. A wire band is then fitted over the ears, and the latter are bent upward and hooked over the wire. Owing



## MUFFLER FOR TELEPHONE TRANSMITTERS.

to the outwardly flaring form of the transmitter the device is thus firmly made fast. Between the ring-shaped plate and the transmitter is a strip of felt which serves to prevent vibrations that strike the plate from being communicated to the mouthpiece of the transmitter. The second member, which is hinged to the plate, is in the form of a flat cover provided on the inside with a lining of felt so that when it is closed down upon the other member it will exclude all sound from the transmitter. The hinged cover is provided with a finger piece, by which it may be opened whenever one desires to use the transmitter but at all other times it should be closed to exclude local noises. The inventor of this simple attachment for telephone transmitters is William D. Plumb, 2022 Lexington Avenue, New York City.

## WROUGHT-STEEL SASHES.

In this sanitary age we have come to recognize the importance of daylight in our work rooms as well as in our homes. The beneficial effect of sun light is well recognized. Add to this the fact that artificial light costs money, while sunlight is free, and nothing further need be said to demonstrate the superiority of the daylight sash, both from the sanitary and the economical point of view. Recently a new type of window sash has been devised for industrial buildings, which, it is claimed, by doing away with the cumbersome frames and heavy mullions makes it possible to deliver 35 per cent more light through a given opening than heretofore. The sash is of very simple construction, and yet is much stronger than the common wooden sash. It is better able to withstand the pressure of the wind, and furnishes no fuel to a fire. It is made of steel bars rolled to the cross section shown in the accompanying engraving. The method of joining these bars is very ingenious and decidedly unique. A small cross slot is made in the



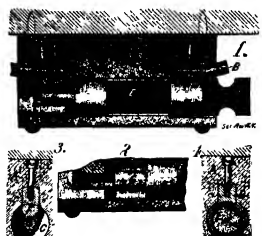
## NOVEL JOINT FOR WROUGHT-STEEL SASHES.

vertical bar (Fig. 2) of the sash just large enough to admit the flange of the horizontal bar. The modified part of the vertical bar is then pressed out so as to fold loosely around the molded portion of the horizontal bar, as shown in Fig. 3. In the latter bar a small notch is cut as indicated in Fig. 1 to act as a lock. It will be observed that the sash joint is removed in making the joint is infinitesimal. The bars run without break from top to bottom of the window as well as from side to side, making a particularly strong framework, and the possibility of using a much lighter section than is possible with a miter joint construction, so that a great saving is effected in the weight of the material used and consequently in the ultimate cost of the sash. Furthermore, the unusual type of joint makes a break in the monotony of the window sash which is pleasing to the eye. A patent on this type of sash has been secured by the Detroit Steel Products Company of Detroit, Mich.

## SAFETY FUSE BLOCK.

Heretofore when fuses such as the screw plug, ordinary cartridge, or the open wire type, have been used, it has been customary in making temporary installations requiring a larger capacity than that supplied by the block used in the original installation to remove the original fuse, and to substitute therefor one of larger and in many instances of a dangerously large carrying capacity. This has resulted in permitting a load to be introduced on the wires which has taxed and in some cases broken down the insulation by heat, resulting often in producing a dangerous fire. To obviate such possibilities the fuse block illustrated in the accompanying engraving has been devised. It is so arranged as to prevent the introduction between the terminals of a line of a fuse having a larger carrying capacity than is designed for the line. The block A is shown in

Fig. 1 is provided with a cylindrical compartment that opens at one end into a recess B and at the other end communicates through a partition F with a recess C. Each recess is fitted with a lug adapted to receive the terminal wires of the line. The lugs are engaged by screws that pass through the blocks and serve as binding posts to hold the line wires. The lug D in the recess B is provided with spring clips of accurate form adapted to grasp the body of the fuse B. The lug F in the opposite recess is also provided with



## SAFETY FUSE BLOCK.

spring clips adapted to engage a fuse G which projects from the end of the fuse. The use is prevented with the usual metallic contact lugs and one end is furnished with a handle H. All of the fuses adapted to be used with a block of a certain ampere carrying capacity are provided with lugs of the same size. A fuse of larger carrying capacity, however, would have a lug of larger diameter. If one should attempt to insert a fuse of larger carrying capacity into the block the fuse would fail to pass through the partition F and enter the clip P as shown in Fig. 2 and no contact would be made with the line terminals. The inventors of this electrical fuse block are Messrs. A. J. Moffitt and G. E. Andrews, of 40 Brigham Street, Providence R. I.

## AUTOMATIC STOCK SALTING DEVICE.

Cattle when housed or running free in a field need a limited supply of salt to maintain them in good condition. If the salt is placed in troughs mixed with feed some of the animals will prevent others from getting a proper amount of the salt. The accompanying engraving illustrates a device which affords free access to the stock for obtaining the requisite amount of salt and at the same time protects the salt from the elements and prevents waste. It consists of a cup-shaped receptacle which is hemispherical, as indicated at A in the illustration. A cover piece B is secured to the receptacle A by means of screws which are threaded into lugs C formed on the member B. The cover piece is also hemispherical in shape, but is cut away at the forward side to admit the muzzle of the animal. A hood D is hinged to the cover B and serves normally to close the opening in the latter. At the forward side of the hood is a lip E which projects forward and is curved upward. The receptacle A is provided with a similar lip F, which however is curved downward thus leaving an opening which will expose the salt and attract the stock. To use a sufficient number of the salt holders are placed in the corral or the field where the stock ranges to enable the cattle to obtain the salt. The animal raises the hood by sliding his muzzle beneath the lip E and rocking the hood back until it engages a lug G. When the animal withdraws his muzzle from the salt holder the hood will close by gravity thus protecting the salt from exposure to the elements. Messrs. Frank and Thomas L. Peifer of Mason 10 (N. P. O. No. 2) have recently secured a patent on this salting device.



## AUTOMATIC STOCK SALTING DEVICE.













# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

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NEW YORK, MARCH 3, 1910

10 CENTS A COPY  
\$5.00 A YEAR



Displacement, 8,200 tons. Speed, 20.75 knots. Coal, 5,000 tons. Oil fuel, 60,000 tons. Armament: 12 12-inch, turret, 12 inches. 12 6-inch, starboard gun. Torpedo tubes, two 21-inch. Complement, 1,011.

THE "UTAH"—OUR LATEST DEADWEIGHT.—[See page 199.]





## TWO REMARKABLE SHOWS

## NOVELTIES IN MOTOR BOATS AND AEROPLANES

The sixth annual motor boat show to be held in Madison Square Garden opened on February 19th and held one week. The show this year was larger than ever before there being a great number of boats of various speeds and sizes exhibited. These varied from 16 feet to 40 in length and in motive power from 1 to 100 horse power. Altogether some fifty boats of various types were exhibited representing a total value of \$2,000. The largest exhibit of any one firm was that of the Electric Launch Company of New York.

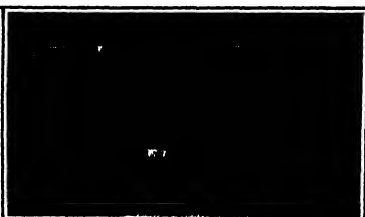
N. J. In addition to an electric launch having a radius of 100 miles on one charge, this company showed a 21 foot mahogany yacht tender fitted with a 40-horse-power gasoline motor and capable of a speed of 22 miles an hour, a larger boat fitted with the same size motor and having a speed of 15 miles an hour, and a 35 foot craft fitted with a 6 cylinder 60-horse-power motor and capable of a speed of 25 miles per hour with six or eight passengers. The most pretentious "ketch" was a high-speed 54 foot cabin launch fitted

with a 60-horse power 4-cylinder Standard motor, and capable of a speed of 15 miles per hour. This boat has a large open cockpit fore and aft for fair weather, and a spacious cabin amidships. The engine is placed forward in a separate compartment and the controlling levers and steering wheel are placed side by side. Other firms exhibited cruisers comparable in size to the boat just mentioned and fitted with all the conveniences needed on this type of craft.

(Continued on page 200.)



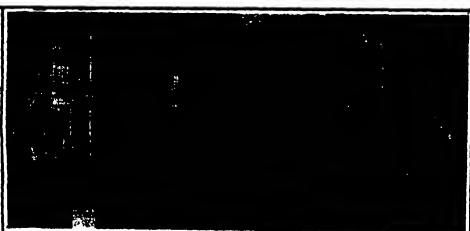
Panthan's Langley type prize-winning model aeroplane



General view of Boston Aeronautic Show; Monoplane Exhibit



Interesting full-size Aeroplanes exhibited at the Boston Aeronautical Show



The French Antoinette type monoplane appears in the foreground and the Harrogate monoplane in the rear distance. The gliders are seen between these two machines and the Harrogate glider appears on the platform in the distance.

The novel L. A. W. biplane, with its revolving cylinder, air cooled, 8-cylinder motor. The heavy curves and construction of the planes is a noticeable feature.



General view of the Sixth Annual Motor Boat Show in Madison Square Garden, New York.

TWO REMARKABLE SHOWS—NOVELTIES IN MOTOR BOATS AND AEROPLANES.



## RAPID PROGRESS OF THE NEW YORK STATE BARGE CANAL

## A RECORD OF RECENT ACHIEVEMENT

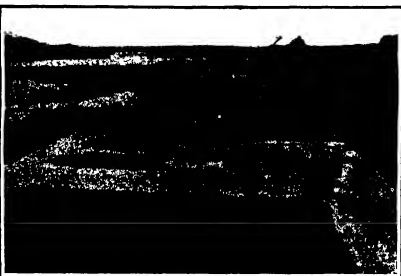
The large amount of work done on the New York State Barge Canal during the past year augurs well, not only for the completion of this great work within the contract time but for its being done within the estimate of total cost of \$10,000,000. Almost as much construction work was completed during the

aggregate of the work under contract is \$74,130,729. It is satisfactory to know that this has been accomplished at a saving of \$2,673,208 over the estimate of 1907 for the same work. Construction work to the value of more than \$16,000,000 has been done nearly one-half of it during the year 1909, after out of the

ing Lake Erie at Buffalo at an elevation of 567.6 feet above sea level the new canal follows the Niagara River to Tonawanda Creek and thence runs easterly to the Oswego River and to a junction with the Hamilton River at Watford. After entering Tonawanda Creek it follows the stream to Lockport where it de-



View of lock No. 5 at Northumberland



One wall of a lock, showing massive character of the concrete masonry



Erecting the lock gates at lock No. 11 at Comstock.



A section of the completed canal at Mills



Laying the concrete floor, lock No. 19 at Whitehall.



Another view of Comstock lock No. 11 showing retaining wall.

## RAPID PROGRESS OF THE NEW YORK STATE BARGE CANAL

year as was accomplished during the whole period of construction preceding, and the plans that were worked out to completion equal 80 per cent of the amount of similar work done in any previous two years, that is, if we consider the mileage and the size of the estimate.

On January 1st, 1910, some 314 miles of the canal, or 75 per cent of the entire work, were under contract, the remainder of the plans were nearing completion and will soon be ready for letting, and the

fifty-four locks are practically completed, and by the spring of next year the eight movable dams of the Mohawk River will be in operation. The work has now reached a stage where it is possible to predict both the time and cost of the completion of the entire project.

By studying the accompanying map, profile, and cross sections of the canal in connection with the following outline of its principal features, an adequate conception of this great work may be gathered. Leav-

ing 101 feet is made by means of two locks; the next is a 60-mile level to Rochester. Beyond Rochester the new canal coincides with the old canal until it enters the River Clyde near Lyons. Beyond Lyons the old canal route is abandoned and a new route is laid to the north of the old work. The Clyde River and the Seneca River are followed to Three Rivers where the Seneca and Onondaga unite to form the Oswego River. A new stretch of canal will be formed in the bed of the river, running north to Lake Ontario, the

depth of the river being increased by the use of fixed dams. From Coweig River the canal extends easterly following the river to and across Oostika lake and through the valley of Wood Creek to the city of Rome. Here the canal crosses the divide by a series of locks and enters the valley of the Mohawk River.

The canal in the valley of the Mohawk between Utica and Schenectady will be provided with nine movable and two fixed dams. Eight of the movable dams will have a maximum lift of 15 ft and a maximum depth on the sills of 20 feet, and these structures will be in contact with the high floods of the Mohawk. The canal enters the Hudson River at Waterford by a series of five locks which will bring it down from an elevation of plan 1 foot to tide level. From Waterford the important branch known as the Champlain Canal runs north to the lake. As far as Fort Edward the location lies in the Hudson River and beyond Fort Edward it will be on an entirely new location making entry into Lake Champlain through Wood Creek which will be realized by the use of fixed dams. The Canadian government has planned the construction of a waterway with a depth of 12 feet from the mouth of the new canal through Lake Champlain to Montreal.

Naturally a work of this magnitude passing through an undulating country and through several important cities involves an immense amount of structural work in the way of dams, locks, bridges and other masonry and steel work. There will be a total amount of fifty-four locks whose lift will vary from 6 feet to a maximum of 40½ feet, thus taking the place of the seventy-two locks of the old canal. All of the locks will be 42 feet wide with a workable length of from 100 to 110 feet. The masonry work throughout the whole canal will be of concrete. All lock gates will be of steel electrically operated. For the control of rivers and streams and the impounding of water for navigation and supply there will be thirty-six dams of the fixed and movable types.

The total quantities of excavation and construction are necessarily very large in closing in round numbers 55,000,000 cubic yards of dredging of 100,000 cubic yards of earth excavation, 11,000,000 cubic yards of rock excavation and about 10,000,000 yards of embankment and back filling making a total of about 135,000,000 cubic yards. In the masonry structures there will be a quarter million cubic yards of concrete. The total length of the canal is 443 miles.

The Legislature in 1905 created a Canal Terminal Commission whose task was to inspect the canal harbors connected with the Barge Canal, as well as harbors where canal freight is either shipped or delivered and to report to the Legislature their findings. We hope to give a digest of this report in due course in the columns of this journal. In this connection it is of interest to note that the interest of the Federal government has been enlisted in the project to form a large terminal harbor in Jamaica Bay with extensive channels at sufficient depths to accommodate seagoing vessels. This improvement will have an important bearing on the question of canal terminal facilities.

#### The Anthracite Coal Beds of Alaska.

By H. A. WILSON.

The extent of the gold and copper deposits has given Alaska its principal reputation for mineral resources. The quality and area of these ores have called public attention to them to the neglect of other minerals and the bulk of the mining in the territory has been done to secure these ores. Consequently coal mining and lumbering are practically undeveloped industries.

Although the geologist and mineralogist have been investigating Alaska for a period of years most of the coal has been confined to the region along the coast, the only very traversed by navigable rivers and the Yukon. Owing to the difficulty of examining

and mapping the interior and especially the southeastern portion of Alaska, accurate information of its mineralogy is available in but a small fraction of its total area. Here however the study of the formation has been so thorough that the existence of very large deposits of coal has been revealed and accurate estimates made showing the locations of the veins also the thickness while the quality of the fuel has been carefully analyzed by elaborate tests. It may be added that the conclusions of the United States Geological Survey agree with the reports of experts who have been sent to Alaska to get data for mining and investment companies.

The investigation of the coal bearing area has been largely centered in the vicinity of the coast and two regions have been thoroughly examined as to prove that fuel is another resource of Alaska of great importance. Though Territory coal bearing rocks are known to cover a considerable area in the southern part of Admiralty Island and on adjacent islands of southeastern Alaska the included coal of this region has little present fuel value. The beds are from a few inches to two or three feet in thickness and the coal is of a few grade lignite character. There are two known areas of bituminous coal in the Yukon River in the Controller Bay region, and the Matanuska field north of Cook Inlet. The Bering River field lying about 25 miles from Iditarod at Controller Bay embraces an area of 154 square miles containing anthracite and 20.3 square miles of bituminous coal. The coal bearing rocks trend to the northeast into the unwarmed high range and it is quite possible that there may be an extension of the coal fields in this direction. Coal

seams may be found in the gravelly terraces, but they are so meagre of transporting this coal to markets that they are not of mining importance. It is stated that no existing coal seams have been discovered in the region.

The chemical analysis of specimens of coal taken from a large number of veins painstakingly covering this entire district gives the following results:

Anthracite	Moisture	Volatile Matter	Fixed Carbon	Ash	Calorific Value
Bering River average of Matanuska & Bering	2.50	12.50	85.00	1.50	13,500
Matanuska River	2.50	12.50	85.00	1.50	13,500
Yukon River	2.50	12.50	85.00	1.50	13,500
Controller Bay	2.50	12.50	85.00	1.50	13,500
Admiralty Island	2.50	12.50	85.00	1.50	13,500
Yukon River	2.50	12.50	85.00	1.50	13,500
Admiralty Island	2.50	12.50	85.00	1.50	13,500
Admiralty Island	2.50	12.50	85.00	1.50	13,500
Admiralty Island	2.50	12.50	85.00	1.50	13,500
Admiralty Island	2.50	12.50	85.00	1.50	13,500

Since the anthracite coal deposits of Pennsylvania would be naturally contrasted with Alaska as a fuel element some analyses of the more notable Pennsylvania grades may be given:

Pa. Region	Water	Volatile Matter	Fixed Carbon	Ash	Calorific Value
Wilkes-Barre	2.50	12.50	85.00	1.50	13,500
Scranton	2.50	12.50	85.00	1.50	13,500
Scranton	2.50	12.50	85.00	1.50	13,500
Scranton	2.50	12.50	85.00	1.50	13,500
Scranton	2.50	12.50	85.00	1.50	13,500

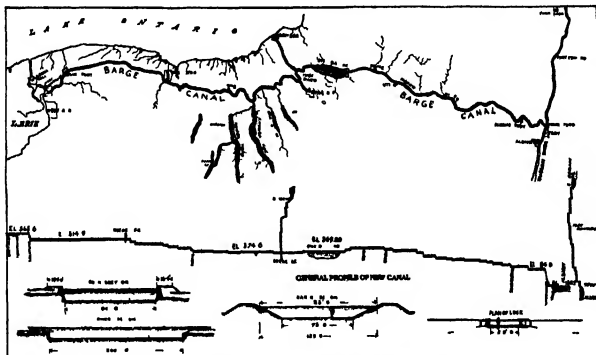
A comparison of the analyses of the coal in the Matanuska field and the two regions yielding the highest grade of anthracite in Pennsylvania would indicate that the Alaskan is of slightly better quality for some uses than the Pennsylvania. Its percentage of fixed carbon is 84.5 as compared with the percentage in the Wilkes-Barre region while the percentage of ash is 2.50 less than the other. The proportion of sulphur is 0.05 as compared with 0.07 in the Pennsylvania. The latter estimated area of anthracite coal found thus far in America.

While the area of the Matanuska region is limited it is comparable with the Appalachian field. It is but a small area of the territory known by examination to contain deposits of anthracite and bituminous coal. The area of the Matanuska region is limited it is comparable with the Appalachian field. It is but a small area of the territory known by examination to contain deposits of anthracite and bituminous coal.

available for use by the construction of railways. That Alaska contains great deposits of high grade fuel is shown by an estimate of the beds in the southwestern section alone. On a conservative basis the total area of these fields is 957 square miles, and the area positively known to be underlain by coal on broad 25 square miles. The latest estimates are of the Pennsylvania anthracite region—the greatest producing region in the world for this grade—is 400 square miles. While the 957 square miles of Alaska west Alaska include also bituminous and lignite of a grade suitable for use, the lignite is contained in only about one-fourth of the area, or less than 200 square miles. The remainder, representing bituminous and anthracite territory, but an already stated, the area who have explored this region agree that the anthracite deposits that can be economically mined and made profitably accessible by rail to seaports have a far greater value than the lignite. The latter is of value only in the Pacific States for an industrial fuel.

The formation in the Matanuska is such that many of the veins can be reached by short tunnels without the need of vertical shafts which would be the case in the Pennsylvania. The veins, therefore, are more accessible on the surface. In short, the Alaskan anthracite permits mining at a minimum cost.

The beds are not so distant from the coast as the five copper mines located near the Copper River and associated by the transportation facilities. The distance with this industry is compared with the distance to the coast. The beds are not so distant from the coast as the five copper mines located near the Copper River and associated by the transportation facilities. The distance with this industry is compared with the distance to the coast.



Plan, profile, and sections of the New York State large canal.  
RAPID PROGRESS OF THE NEW YORK STATE BARGE CANAL.

beds varying from six to twenty feet in thickness are exposed in this region with some local variations, giving much greater thickness in quality than the coal vary from an anthracite with 84 per cent of fixed carbon to a semi-bituminous with 74 per cent of fixed carbon and include some varieties that will coals. There has been much prospecting in these coals but in the absence of railways no mines have been developed though a small output from one had been taken to the coast in barge.

"The Matanuska may be considered the most important for commercial purposes than far discovered in the territory owing to its accessibility. This field lies about 25 miles from Iditarod at Kaktik, a northerly embayment of Cook Inlet. As Cook Inlet is frozen during the winter however the distance to an open seaport must be measured to Resurrection Bay on the east side of Kaktik Peninsula, about 150 miles from the coal field. There are several months of the year when Cook Inlet could be used as a waterway.

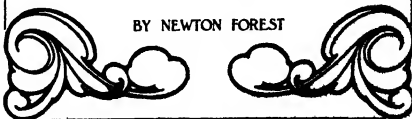
The coal of these deposits as investigated by Alfred H. Brooks the eminent mining expert employed with the Geological Survey varies in quality from a semi-bituminous to a semi-anthracite, with some anthracite, and is included in folded and faulted Tertiary or Miocene basalt sandstones and conglomerates, aggregating 2,000 feet in thickness. The coal beds vary from 1 to 36 feet in thickness and the total area known to be underlain by coal aggregates 464 square miles. However as much of the field is covered by gravel and sand it has been estimated that the bituminous area may be much larger. The land area of which they prove to be economically possible to transport, the





## OSTRICH FARMING AS AN INDUSTRY

BY NEWTON FOREST



Does ostrich farming pay? The question is asked by almost everyone who visits an ostrich farm. The answer is that when an acre of alfalfa will furnish a lot for four birds with food enough to maintain them throughout the year, when an ostrich will yield annually about two pounds of feathers with an average value of \$10 a pound and from thirty-six to ninety eggs which may be used for incubation or may furnish food at the rate of nearly four pounds to the egg if the owner does not wish to increase his troop ostrich farming does pay and pays well.

There is nothing very lovable about an ostrich as there usually is about other domestic animals. But however lacking in personal charm it may be, the big bird is a money producer. A head of cattle sells sixty-five pounds of alfalfa in a day, an ostrich ten pounds. This head of cattle at five years old is worth \$10 and an ostrich at that age is worth \$250. There is nothing to the cattle but meat. At ten months the ostrich will produce \$10 worth of feathers and thereafter from \$25 to \$150 worth of feathers annually for a long period of years. Though an ostrich is matured at the age of five and is reproducing its average life is about that of a human being. The bird does not begin to decline until it is fifty years old. Many how ever produce less than the average of twenty-five.

There is as much difference in the breed of ostriches as there is in any other animal. Some of the California and Arizona male birds are rated at as high as \$1,000 each, but ordinarily the value averages about \$500 for a new arrival and about \$100 for a chick. Some of the cocks weigh as much as 700 pounds and stand over ten feet high.

It has of late years been found that a great deal of money can be made in ostrich farming. Especially so where alfalfa or lucern can be raised on irrigated lands. In the Salt River Valley in Arizona there are about 2,000 acres of rich land soon to be made richer and more productive through immense irrigation works on which the United States is spending \$8,000,000. Such a climate is an ideal one for ostrich farming as the farms in that locality have already proven by their successful operations. While the birds thrive best in a warm dry climate they can be grown in any of the southern States and Territories of this country. In a moist climate however they would have to be protected from cold and rain.

It is only a little more than two decades ago since the first ostrich here was brought into the United States with the serious purpose of attempting their culture

here. Before that time the only birds seen in this country had been introduced to America. Today at least of those in most there are some four thousand birds on the American continent. Probably half of this number are the progeny of a single pair owned in Arizona in 1891.

The female ostrich matures much earlier than the cock beginning to lay fertile eggs when she is about three and a half years old. The nest is made in a hole or less than a hole scratched in the ground which is done by the male bird. At first the hen may not take to the nest but may lay her first eggs on the ground whereupon the male will roll them into the nest. Generally after the male has put three or four eggs into the nest the female will take to it. She will then lay an egg every other day until about sixteen eggs have appeared in the nest. An ostrich egg is nearly eight inches long and about six inches in diameter. It makes a good omelet and is excellent when scrambled. One egg will make as much omelet as three dozen hens eggs. A full-grown bird has been known to produce over three hundred pounds of eggs food in a year.

An annual increase of about fifty per cent of a flock is secured mainly through the use of incubators, though on every farm a few peddlers are maintained as a rule for the sole occupancy of a pair of birds. Three times a year the hen begins to lay. She does most of her sitting during the daytime the male bird attending to that part of the household duties at night. He still usually goes on the nest about five o'clock in the evening and remains there until eight o'clock next morning. It is thought that the color of the sexes has something to do with developing these instincts. The male being black is not so easily seen at night and the female being drab or nearly the color of sand cannot be readily observed on the nest in daytime.

The male usually begins to sit three or four days before the hen stops laying. If the weather is cold during the laying period the male will often be found covering the eggs at intervals during the night to prevent them from becoming chilled. The birds are also very watchful in the warmest season to prevent the eggs from becoming superheated by the sun. The birds do this by resting on their ankle joints and spreading their wings umbrella wise over the nest. As is usually the case with all eggs in a dry climate the shell of an ostrich egg becomes dry and hard. It is therefore very difficult for the chick to break through. When the time arrives for the liberation of the young they

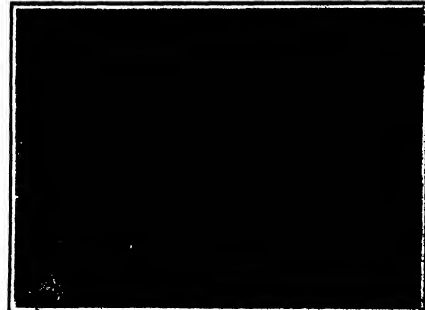
are heard to chirp and to move in the shell. The parent bird seems to understand the situation, and will often crack the shells with its beak, sometimes taking the young by the head and pulling it out of the shell. Sometimes four or five days elapse between the hatching of the first and the last egg. During this time one of the parent birds sticks to the nest while the other takes care of the chicks. However on a well regulated ostrich farm the farmer assists the birds in hatching by cracking the eggs with a small hammer and putting the unhatched eggs into an incubator.

The chicks appear to be all eyes and necks when they first come out of the shells yet their bodies are as large as those of full-grown hens. They are so fuzzy and so soft as a day-old chicken but far more stupid. For the first week of their existence nothing but gravel is given the young ostriches. Then they are turned into small pens in the alfalfa lots where they are to eat alfalfa for the rest of their lives.

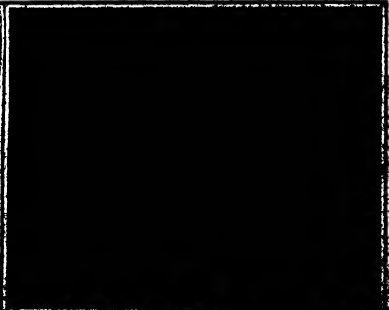
Plucking is the general term by which the harvesting of feathers is known. The term might lead one to believe that the feathers are pulled out. This is not the case however for that would injure the bird. The plumes are snipped off with shears close to the flesh. The quills that are left soon die and drop out after which new feathers begin to sprout. There are twenty-five long white plumes on each wing of the cock bird. The rest of the plumage is black on the male and of a grayish color on the female. Gathering the feathers is no easy task. This work has to be done with great care for a kick from one of the powerful legs of the bird is enough to disable a man for life or even kill him outright.

At the plucking time the birds are driven into individual plucking boxes and a loose bag slipped over their heads, which tends to keep them quiet. A cock bird will roar mournfully while being plucked although the operation is absolutely painless. After he has been stripped of his plumage he is about as ugly a sight as one could behold.

The first experiment of ostrich farming in this country was made by an Englishman who imported his birds from Africa and paid as high as \$1,200 a pair for them. As in nearly every venture of this character, the originator of the scheme did not make a fortune out of it. But the wise and daring investors who followed in his footsteps are now congratulating themselves. They are reaping the harvest he could dream of by the starter of the industry in South



A male chick just hatched by an incubator.



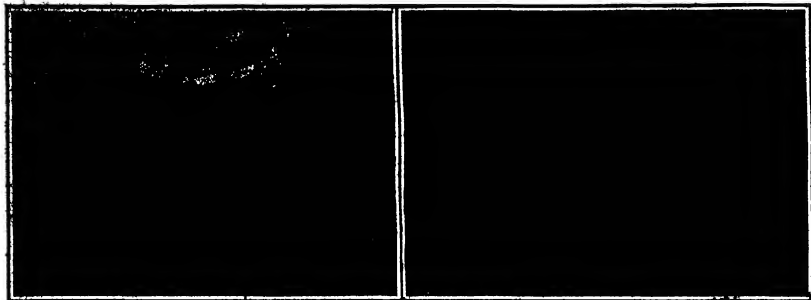
A male chick just hatched by an incubator.

There is a demand throughout for soldiers to meet the demands for high-grade machine guns and if they were dependent solely on the steel imported from Africa, it would be a case out of the question. But so flourishing has been the American ostrich-farming industry that a large part of the supply is now home produced. The ostriches produced in the United States are just as big and in many cases much superior to those grown in Africa.

operation is done by French girls, and the skill with which this work is carried on is marvelous. To each shoe a long plume is tied another in such a way that the joint is invisible. Some plumes treated in this manner have been priced at \$1.000.

**Elektron Metal: a New Light Weight Alloy**  
At the International Aeronautical Exposition in Frankfurt a Gröschel firm exhibited a new and

The field of usefulness of the new material, therefore, is very extensive. Its strength and lightness make it especially valuable for the construction of airplanes and aeroplanes, but it may also be employed with advantage in the construction of automobiles, motors, and machines and instruments of every kind. It is so much stronger and lighter than aluminium and its alloys that 60 pounds of it may be substituted for 100 pounds of those materials. For example in a Fawcett



**An article from**

The business of ostrich farming has long become a science before it was introduced into this country. In South Africa there are all manner of laws to protect the business. There is a governmental ostrich doctor whose particular duty it is to study the diseases peculiar to such birds. There is also an ostrich breeding association where are recorded the pedigrees of the finer birds. Some of the farmers have so improved their stock that their ostrich shikhs bring from \$500 to \$1,000 each and many of the most noted cock birds are valued at \$2,000.

Port Elizabeth in South Africa is the chief ostrich feather port of the world. In that vicinity there are nearly a half million birds now in captivity. The feathers from these birds sell from \$10 to \$150 a pound and the industry of this one port alone amounts to some \$15 000 000 a year.

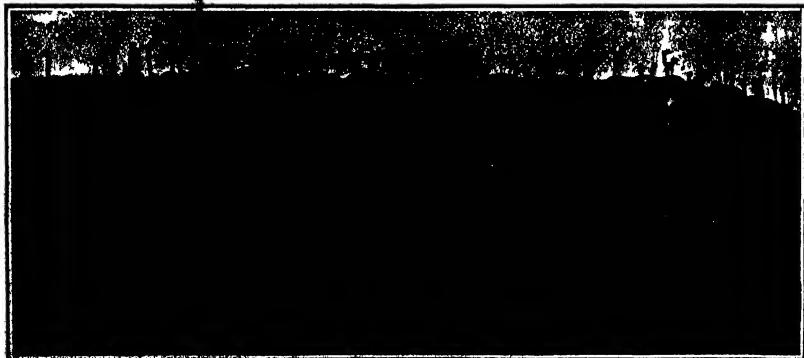
There are some districts that produce better feathers than others. The Onditshoora feather weighs twenty

**Advanced alloy series** of alloys under the name "electron metal". These alloys possess great strength united to exceedingly low specific gravity and hence appear to be the material of the future for various structural purposes. Aluminum and its alloys are lighter than steel, titanium alloys are heavier than aluminum metal and far inferior to it in strength and tenacity. The new alloys are composed chiefly of magnesium the rather inferior structural qualities of which metal have been very greatly improved by additions of various other metals. The new alloys are stronger than steel, they are lighter, of great strength tenacity and elasticity and are easily worked. They have a clear metallic ring and when polished a beautiful silvery luster. Their resistance to atmospheric influences satisfies every practical requirement, as they become covered with protective films of oxide which prevent further attack. At the time of casting they show a crystalline strength up to

**A pair of birds and their eggs**

airship having an aluminum frame weighing 13,000 pounds 5,000 pounds weight could be saved without any reduction of strength by the substitution of steel iron metal. It would then be possible to carry more fuel and ballast increasing the radius of action more passengers or larger and more powerful motors. It may even be found possible to diminish the dimensions of the airship and the cost of operating it by an extensive employment of the new material. Similar advantages may be expected in automobile construction. A large automobile now weighing 3,000 pounds and containing 250 pounds of aluminum which could be replaced by 250 pounds of aluminum metal. At the exposition the new material was shown both cast and wrought into a great variety of forms—Umanau

The consumption of pulp wood during 1908 by 351 pulp mills in the United States amounted according to a preliminary report of the Bureau of the Census



The value of the 110 birds in this picture is at least \$50,000.

## OUTLINE PARKING AS AN INDUSTRY

[illegible]

more than 25 000 pounds per square inch and an extensibility up to 5 per cent. By planning rolling and drawing, the tensile strength can be increased to very nearly 30 000 pounds per square inch and the extensibility to 15 per cent, without producing any appreciable increase in specific gravity. The properties of the alloy can be varied within wide limits by changing the nature and proportions of the metals which are added to the magnesium.

## THE HEAVENS IN MARCH

BY HERBERT NORMAN DENBIGH, F.R.S.



straight away from the earth and rapidly losing bright-ness, so that this time it is invisible, behind the sun and some distance north of the ecliptic. In another month or so it should be seen in the morning sky, but only with a telescope aid.

The determination of its orbit has apparently presented unusual difficulties. In order to calculate a comet's orbit, we must first have accurate observations of its position. Such observations are usually made by measuring with the telescope the distance and direction of the comet (or equivalent quantities) from some star whose place in the sky is known from previous observations, taking care to note the time at which these measures were made. In the present case the comet was at first visible only in daylight, when no suitable comparison stars could be seen in its position in the sky had therefore to be found by means of the readings of the graduated circles attached to the telescope, and these are far inferior in accuracy to measures of the former kind.

It is not therefore surprising that the preliminary orbits calculated from these rough observations differ widely among themselves. When the comet reappears in the morning sky, and can be accurately observed, the comparison of the results with the few accurate observations made in January and February will set the question.

Halley's comet is also out of sight for the present—behind the sun or nearly so and about 100 million miles away. It may still be observed telescopically low in the west in the early evening for a few days early in the month, but it cannot be seen in the morning sky until April is well begun, when it will reappear, much nearer us and probably far brighter than when it vanished in the twilight.

We must therefore for the time being turn our attention mainly to the stars, and among them we will find much to occupy us while we wait for the comet to reappear. Let us begin right overhead with the constellation Gemini. Its two principal stars, Castor and Pollux, identify it at once, for nowhere, in our skies are two equally bright stars so near neighbors. The roughly straight lines of stars which run south-west from these and terminate in the stars  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  are also easy to identify if one is careful.

Castor itself is a fine object with even a small telescope, showing double with a power of fifty diameters. The two components are about twice as bright as the other twelve about one another with a period of perhaps 60 years. The faint star which lies about twelve times as far from them as they are from one another is moving with them among the other stars, and is probably also in very close revolution about them but, if so, must take more than a thousand years to complete a single circuit. This star  $\delta$  is also a fine double. Close by to the eastward is Cancer, with no bright star but one interesting cluster, visible clearly to the naked eye, and resolved into its separate stars by a field glass. This spot of light known as Praesepe (the Beehive), is marked on the map.

Antares, which lies in the Milky Way, northwest of the south, is one of the finest constellations in the sky. The figure of the character kneeling in his chariot forms our initial letter. The most northerly

bright star of the constellation,  $\beta$ , is in his head,  $\delta$  is in his right arm, and the brilliant yellow star (Antares) marks the Goat which he is supposed to hold in his left arm, while the three smaller stars just below it are called the kids—an armful indeed! Further south  $\epsilon$  is in his right knee, and  $\zeta$  in his left foot, uncomfortably near the tip of one of the little horns ( $\rho$  Tau).

Capella is, next to Rigel, the brightest star in the part of the skies which we can see—according to the data of the Nautical Almanac. Arcturus and Vega are however very nearly its equal in brightness, and the three stars differ so widely in color that different observers, whose eyes were unusually sensitive to light of different colors, might easily disagree as to their relative rank. Well down the west are Orion and his neighbors, Canis Major on the left and Taurus on the right. Mars passes through the latter constellation during the month, and fairly rivals Aldebaran in color and brightness. Perseus and Andromeda are in the northwest—the latter partly set—and Cassiopeia farther to the left.

Just south we see Procyon, with the few faint stars which form the head of the meek-looking Little Dog, high up near the meridian, and part of the great constellation Argos low on the horizon. Further out,

right of the pole, Ursa Minor, inclined within its sweep; and Cepheus, low in the north, complete our survey.

## THE PLANETS.

Mercury is morning star all through March, but, being south of the sun, is not well observable in those latitudes. He may perhaps be seen early in the month, but only with difficulty, as he rises but three-quarters of an hour before the sun.

Venus is likewise a morning star, and, unlike Mercury, is very conspicuous.

She reaches her greatest brightness on the 15th. At this time she appears, with a magnifying power of fifty diameters, just as the crescent moon some five days old does to the naked eye, except that her surface is free from perceptible markings and is uniformly white. She rises about 4 A.M. and is the principal ornament of the morning sky. Indeed, there is no difficulty about seeing her in broad daylight—if the sky is really clear—except that of knowing where to look for her. On the morning of the 16th the crescent moon will be a good guide, as Venus will lie about five or six degrees nearer the sun, and about two degrees above the line joining them.

Mars is still an evening star, and is steadily losing brightness. His distance from us increases from 146 to 170 million miles during the month, and he moves eastward among the stars through Taurus, keeping well ahead of the sun, so that he remains in sight till after 11 P.M.

Jupiter is in opposition on the 21st, and is visible all night long. He is a splendid object to the naked eye, and a fascinating one to even the small telescope. His four large satellites can be seen without difficulty, unless indeed some of them should be behind or in front of the planet. In the latter case their shadows can be seen, as black dots on Jupiter's surface, with more powerful instruments, and afford one of the most interesting of celestial spectacles as they transit across his disk.

The elliptical form of the planet due to its rapid rotation, and the dark belts which cross his disk, parallel to his equator, can also be seen with a small instrument. The four other satellites, discovered in recent years, are observable only with a few of the largest telescopes.

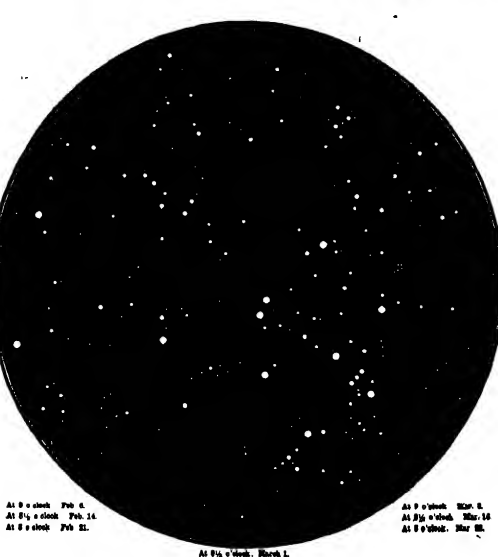
Saturn is an evening star, setting about 8 P.M. in the middle of the month. Uranus is in his glimmering rising about 8 30 A.M. At the same date Neptune is well observable in Gemini, his position on the 15th being R.A. 23.11, N. 64.5. On the 21st, 44 min. north, and his apparent motion very slow. To identify him, however, one needs either a detailed star map or a telescope large enough to show his disk, that is, six inches or so in aperture.

The moon is in her last quarter at 3 A.M. on the 4th, is new at 7 A.M. on the 11th, in her first quarter at 10 P.M. on the 17th, and is full at 3 P.M. on the 25th. She is nearest to the 12th, and farthest off on the 23rd. In her circuit around the sky she passes near Uranus on the 7th, Venus on the 13th, Mercury on the 18th, Saturn on the 19th, Mars on the 19th, Neptune on the 19th, and Jupiter after her on the morning of the 26th—the last conjunction being at all close.

At 10 A.M. on March 21st the sun crosses the celestial equator, passing over the point in the heavens called the vernal equinox, or "first point of Aries," and in advance languages "Spring commencement."

Princeton University Observatory.

**GLASSING GLASS OR PORCELAIN.**—Prepares a mixture of 800 parts of lavender oil, 100 parts of gold chloride, 50 parts of lampblack substrate, and 50 parts of chrome soap. After application, lampblack must be rubbed into the article to give a fine finish. A brilliant effect will be produced without further treatment.



NIGHT SKY: FEBRUARY AND MARCH

on a level with Procyon, a small but conspicuous group marks the head of the great serpent Hydra, whose body may be followed, past the little red star Alpheratz, down to the southeastern horizon. To the left are Corvus and Crater, and then Virgo made up of unity brilliant by the presence of Jupiter, which is just below the notable double star  $\gamma$ . Higher up is Leo, one of the four constellations, recognized at once by the 'M' shape, at the end of whose handle is the first-magnitude star Regulus.

Farther west, near the horizon, Arcturus shines brilliantly, far surpassing his neighbors in Bootes. Above and on the left is the familiar and gigantic form of the Great Bear. Within the curve of the Bear's tail the blower handles are the Mizar and Alcor which pursue her on an endless chase around the pole. They have but a single bright star, but this is a fine double, worth looking at if one has a telescope magnifying twenty times or more.

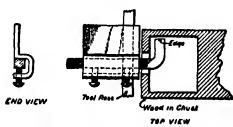
The group of small stars known as Berenice's Hair, to the southward, is a good example of a star cluster so coarse that it can be resolved by the naked eye, but yet composed of stars faint enough, and near enough together, to produce almost the impression of a nebula at a hasty glance, while closer scrutiny shows the individual components. Draco, crouching up to the





TOOL-HOLDING DEVICE FOR WOOD TURNING

Those who use a wood lathe find frequent occasion to make special tools for difficult or unusual work, and when the tool is so shaped that the cutting edge is at right angles to the shaft, great annoyance is experienced in turning the tool to the work, and keeping it from turning in the hand. Recently I had



TOOL-HOLDING DEVICE FOR WOOD TURNING

a piece of work similar to that shown in the drawing and after many experiments had failed to give complete satisfaction I devised the device illustrated. It is made of heavy sheet steel (the heaviest I could work readily) and provided with two set-screws, as shown, in which it is to be moved along the chisel as desired, and for the insertion of new chisels. As illustrated, the flat portion lies on the tool rest, and this absolutely prevents the turning of the tool. By its use I was able to reach with ease the most inaccessible corners.

## ELECTRIC INCUBATORS AND BROODERS.

BY FREDERICK H. WARD.

The invention of an electrically heated incubator over those making use of kerosene lamps and the like are no great, but as rapidly as cheap reliable power service becomes extended throughout the country, the hatching of eggs by electricity bids fair to displace all other methods.

An electric incubator can be built at home by anybody who can make a wooden box and connect up ordinary incandescent lamps. Such a machine has not only the merit of being low in first cost, but of having nothing about it to wear out, and of being capable of giving perfect results with very little attention on the part of the operator.

The photographs show the first incubator built by the author, while the drawings give details of construction drawn to scale, for a similar machine of fifty eggs capacity. Briefly, it consists of an outer and an inner wooden box, having the space between them packed with wool or other heat-retaining material. The eggs are placed in the inner box, which is warmed with incandescent lamps controlled by a thermostat.

The boxes should be made of well-seasoned lumber about  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch thick. Old soap boxes furnish good material for the purpose. For a fifty-egg machine the inner box needs to be 11 inches wide, 17 inches long, and 11 inches deep, all inside measurements. This box is to be left without any top or bottom except a slatted bottom which is to be put in half say down thus dividing the box into an upper and a lower compartment of equal depth. On top of the slats a double thickness of wool blanket should be tacked, to support the eggs, as shown in Fig. 1.

Slight electric lamps are required for the heating units. These are best mounted in porcelain receptacles as shown, four lamps in one compartment near the top. For 110-volt circuits use ordinary 15-watt incandescent filament lamps made for 230 volts, and connect them as shown in the diagram, where *H* is a power regulator, *W* a thermostat, and *A* and *B* are snap switches to be placed on the outside, as shown in one of the photographs.

It is hardly worth while to make a thermostat at home when one suitable for the purpose can be bought from a dealer in electrical supplies for about seventy-five cents, but it is not a difficult job for anybody who takes pleasure in doing such work. Fig. 2 shows a simple form of thermostat attached directly to the inside of the egg chamber. The essential part consists of two strips of metal riveted together as shown in the top view at *A*. Zinc and steel (or iron) make the most effective combination, brass and steel (or iron) come next. The strips should be about  $\frac{1}{32}$  inch thick, 8 inches long, 1 inch wide at the large end and  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch at the narrow end. They may be fastened together with fifteen or twenty small rivets, or by soldering them all around the edges. The two metals thus joined tend to curl and uncurl with changes in temperature, by reason of their different rates of expansion. The large end should be clamped to a block *B*, as shown, and a contact screw should be provided at *C*, with a stiff wire, *D*, attached to serve as a screwdriver for adjustment. From the outside it is highly important that the tip of the screw *C* and the spot on the zinc (or brass) strip be protected by pieces of platinum soldered on, or the electric arc which passes between them will soon destroy them. If the thermostat be purchased as advised, it must be mounted in such a position that the adjusting screw can be reached by a screwdriver or wire passing in from the outside through small holes in the box.

The inner and outer boxes are to be joined at the bottom by a passageway or tunnel three inches high, forming a doorway through which chicks may enter the brooding compartment under the egg chamber. The inner and outer boxes are to be joined near the top by three or four half inch tubes for ventilation as shown at *V*, Fig. 2.

The top of the egg chamber is best covered over with a pane of glass, on top of which is laid a small pillow or several thicknesses of folded blanket.

Next in importance to the thermostat comes the choice of a thermometer and its proper location in the

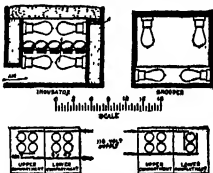


FIG. 1.—CONSTRUCTION DETAILS AND WIRING DIAGRAM OF THE INCUBATOR AND BROODER.

the egg chamber, where the bulb should occupy a central position rather than close one corner. It is not necessary to buy an expensive instrument in order to get accuracy; an ordinary ten-cent thermometer can be made to serve the purpose very well provided that its scale be properly corrected or "calibrated." This may be easily accomplished by taking advantage of the fact that the internal temperature of a normal, healthy person is just a trifle over 98 deg. F. Tie a thread around the tube at the place marked 98 deg. on the scale, and remove the tube from the scale, to which it is usually attached by two bits of wire. Place

eight lamps in it, the apparatus so described is capable of maintaining a temperature of 104 deg. in the egg chamber when the room temperature is only 40 deg. If used in a warmer room, one pair of the lamps in the lower compartment may be turned off by means of the snap switch.

Each pair of 230-volt 15-watt-incandescent carbon lamps, connected in series as shown, will, when used on a 110-volt circuit, burn with a full red glow scarcely visible in daylight, and with a power consumption of 114 watts. A fifty-egg machine operated in a room where the temperature is 65 deg. consumes about 16 watts, making a total for 55 days of about 8 kilowatt hours, which, where the rate is 18 cents, costs 40 cents. This cost looks high at first sight, but it is materially lower than that of a kerosene-burning machine if one stops to consider the saving in interest on first investment,

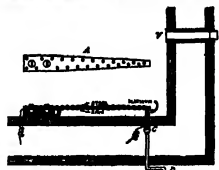


FIG. 2.—METHOD OF APPLYING THE THERMOSTAT.

the saving in oil, the absence of depreciation and repair bills, and the saving in labor of attendance.

In the practical operation of the incubator, the following points should be borne in mind:

The eggs need to be turned partly every day. A good way to do this is to take out the row of five eggs at the left hand end, roll the remaining ones toward the left, and replace the five at the right hand end. This progressive movement serves also to even up the different times of hatching that might result from some eggs remaining in warmer spots than others.

Increasing ventilation is required as incubation progresses. Practically no air is needed the first two weeks, and all ventilating tubes and the door to the lower compartment may be kept closed with considerable economy in power. During the third week, and especially when the hatch is due, plenty of air must be allowed to filter up through the eggs, as shown by the arrows in Fig. 1.

No moisture is required during the first week. Thereafter it is best to keep a small pan of water in the lower compartment and a small glassful in the egg chamber. These serve to prevent excessive evaporation of the eggs by too dry air.

The newly hatched chicks should not be taken out or fed until they are 24 hours old. After this they may be kept in the lower compartment for a time, provided all four lamps be kept burning. As soon as convenient, however, they should be transferred to an electric brooder, two forms of which will now be described.

The first and simpler form, suitable for use only in a well warmed room, is shown in one of the photographs. It consists of a small wooden table carrying on its under side four lamps, and surrounded by a fringe made by setting a piece of old blanket. Fur use on the ground or over the floor the bottom compartment heat must be provided as shown in Fig. 1. Forty chicks can be accommodated by such a brooder, having the following dimensions:

Top, 14 by 36 inches, supported by legs 8 inches long. Bottom box of wood, 14 by 36 inches outside, 8 inches deep inside. Base-cover of tin 14 by 36 inches, prevented on top by a sheet of paper and a

spring of steel. Four lamps are required in the upper part, one near each corner, and two in the bottom heater. It will be observed in the diagram of connections that the latter lamps are connected in parallel and in series, which enables them to burn more brightly. The power consumption is 24 watts, or about twice what is required for hatching. No thermostat or thermometer is needed for the brooder. It will not get too warm if the supply is left on all the time.

Where any form of brooder is used, and all that is described, is used it is to be placed in a room where the temperature is 65 deg. or over, with all

THE BROODER WITHOUT MOTOR HEATER.

INCUBATOR WITH BROODING COMPARTMENT OPEN.

PLAN VIEW WITH COVER REMOVED.

the bulb under the tongue at the side of the mouth and hold it until the mercury column does not rise any higher. By observing with a mirror it will then be possible to determine quite accurately how much the error the marking on the scale may be, and due allowance for this can then be made by assuming that the same error is present at the 104-deg. mark, which is the temperature of incubation.

The machine must be run a few days before any eggs are put in, to give time for carefully adjusting the thermostat. When the latter is once set right it will maintain the heat at the desired point by "walking" the lamps on and off. With all



If which the chisel may get up on the raised platform.  
The following bill gives a list of all materials used and their present retail prices.

For the Incubator.

2 220-volt 15-candle-power carbon lamps	\$1.50
1 porcelain receptacles	.48
1 thermostat	.75
1 thermometer	.10
2 single-pole snap switches	.30
1 plate 12 x 18 window glass	.30
Lumber, etc.	.15
Total	\$3.58

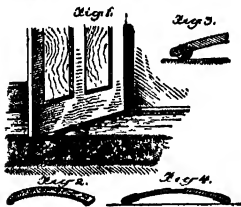
For the Brooder.

2 220-volt 15-candle-power carbon lamps	\$1.50
1 porcelain receptacles	.48
1 sheet 14 x 30 tin	.15
Lumber, etc.	.05
Total	\$1.78

The foregoing bill does not include the shaded lamp and fixture shown on the outside of the incubator in Figs. 1 and 2. An ordinary 6-candle-power lamp as mounted is a convenience, but not in any way essential.

CONVENIENT DOOR HOLDER.

A convenient door holder may be made from a barrel hoop, as shown in the accompanying illustration, by cutting a plate about eight inches long and inserting a rubber-band tack (such as used in the plumbing trade) at each end, on the under side, as shown in Fig. 3. Two such tacks are also placed on upper face, spaced apart sufficiently to allow the bottom of the door to fit between them. The arched shape of the hoop will give sufficient friction between the door and door to hold the door in any desired position. If rubber-head tacks are not available the ends may be covered with some soft material such as carpet and laced thereto. In place of tacks, a notch may be cut in the barrel hoop equal to the thickness of the door, as shown in Fig. 4 of the illustration. The



DOOR-HEAD DOOR-GRASPING DEVICE.

center of a barrel stave may be used instead of a hoop by setting it to about the same width as the hoop

BOILING HOLE IN GLASS.  
BY GEORGE J. STANLEY.

Glass is universally conceded to be exceedingly difficult to work when cold, yet its fragile nature often calls for means of repair. It is also desirable sometimes to drill large holes in glass plates, or through a glass column, which is not an easy thing to do with any facilities hitherto developed for such work.

It is well known that turpentine applied to a small drill will enable one to drill through a piece of glass by persistent application and frequent grindings of the drill. This hole will often taper from a larger diameter at the top to a smaller one at the bottom, and besides it is quite impossible to drill two holes of the same size with the same drill. Instrument work of certain classes would be made better also if it were possible to tap threads in the glass of the base or other parts are composed. In the opinion of the writer the best fluid to be applied to the glass so that the tool will take hold is that of the formula given below. It has been developed after many experiments with different mixtures, and will be found to be superior to anything heretofore known. With a heated die, wet with it, a piece of plate glass may be put into a vise and filed like wood; any other sort of file may be used, but there is more glass to remove, the smoother the file the better.

For drilling small holes, a brass tube of the diameter of the hole wanted is better than a drill. The tube, provided it is made smooth by the end that is to come in contact with the glass, and is charged with carburetted gas, gives far what is better, diamond dust. It is necessary the hole of a piece of wood having a hole drilled in it of the size of the brass tube, and the brass tube is inserted in the hole of the wood and the tube is turned in the wood.

made in the side of the tube by filing into it with a round file, and it may be turned either by a drill press or by one of the small, hand drill-stocks used for small drills. With a small brush dipped into the solution as heretofore given wipe the hole so that a little of the mixture will run down inside the tube, and onto the glass where the hole is being made, and the tube will be found to enter the glass with surprising ease.

If it is desired to have the edge of the hole sharp where the tube comes through, cement a small piece of

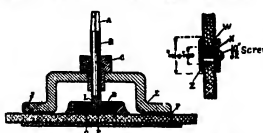


FIG. 1—APPARATUS FOR BORING LARGE HOLES IN GLASS. FIG. 2—METHOD OF REPAIRING CRACKED PLATE GLASS.

glass to the under side of the plate being bored, and when the tube is through, continue the boring until it has entered the lower plate slightly. Glass cut with the diamond will often break unevenly, and fail to fit a window sash, circles cut out for the state of instruments of the clock class, circles for static electric machines, glass covers for galvanometers, ammeters, and many other instruments are often thrown away, when a touch with a file wet with this solution would save them. It is especially recommended to glassmen to remove the sharp edges of the glass cut with the diamond, which often cut the hands. For boring large holes in plate glass the jig shown in the sectional view, Fig. 1, is very handy, in fact almost essential. If correct results are required. It can be easily modified to hold the cutter for boring circular work, such as glass columns or conical structures, where circumstances require such variation. The frame is an iron casting having feet *F*, and is bored out to receive a steel bushing *C*, which may be hardened after a central hole is made to receive the shaft *H* of the cutter bar. The top of the cutter bar or shaft is squared at *A* so that a bit stock may hold it, or it may be held by the chuck of a drill press. The bottom has a flange and a pilot *L*, which fits in the hole of a small oversize wheel *G* of the kind used by toolmakers on universal grinding machines for lapping out small holes.

The lead bushing in the wheel should be cut out on the side that is to do the boring, and the pilot *L* must not go entirely through the wheel, but be cut at least  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an inch short of the wheel thickness. The wheel may now be cemented to the cutter shaft by heating it, and also the wheel slightly, so as to melt some gun shell, which has been sprinkled on the top side of the wheel. After it is cold mix up a stiff paste of liquid glue and some of about the same grade as the glue, and fill the bottom of the hole *P* even with the wheel. In drying it will shrink slightly and the paste may be applied again, and until the surface is flush with the sides of the wheel.

The feet *F* of the frame have thin rubber *R* (known in the stores as "rubber dam") cemented to their under side with Mergel fire cement, so that when placed on the glass the jig will not slip around, but can be easily held in any desired location.

The place where the hole is to be made having been ascertained, a ring of putty *D* is stuck to the glass to form a seal, and after the wheel shaft is inserted in the bushing, the apparatus is placed with the face of the wheel over the spot to be bored, with the feet *F* resting on the glass. Before boring operations a piece of double-clip window glass *H* is cemented with French copal varnish to the under side of the plate to be bored.

The formula for the fluid to be applied to the tools is as follows:

Purified camphor . . . on dr  
Sulphuric ether . . . dr vi  
Enough oil turpentine to make a six-ounce bottle full.  
Apply the bit stock to the shaft *H* of the shaft, then pour enough of the fluid into the putty cup to cover the lower side of the wheel *G*.

When the wheel is turned it will immediately enter the glass, boring a very smooth and true hole. If a drill press is used, the speed should be slow to avoid throwing the fluid out of the cup or heating the wheel, the last being especially avoided, as all of the constituents of the fluid are very volatile, and it will evaporate quickly if much heat be present.

When the hole is nearly enough moderate the pressure, but keep on drilling until the wheel has entered the plate *H* slightly. A slight tap with a hammer will now knock the window glass off, and the wheel and shaft may be removed. The hole is now ready to attempt to remove it through the top unless the hole is very clean, or you will pull the wheel off the arbor.

Fig. 2 shows how a cracked plate-glass window may be repaired. At the ends of each crack a screw and where they intersect a hole is bored to receive a bolt. The nut *Z* of the bolt is made thin, and a rubber washer, made of engine jacking is held against the glass by a washer and a nut. The dimensions given are those used some time ago in repairing a store window. The heads of the screws were located inside the store, so as to make it impossible to remove them from the outside. The window is still doing service.

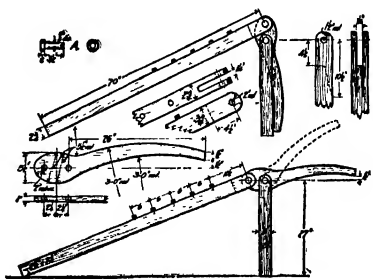
A WAGON JACK.

BY L. O. SAYLOR.

For oiling wagon wheels, or taking them off, some kind of lifting arrangement is resorted to. For simplicity of construction and effectiveness the jack here-with described is unique. The whole, including the pump and hose, is made of cast, the best tough white oak being recommended.

The beam is made from  $\frac{3}{4}$  by 4-inch timber, planed down to the dimensions given. An eye or slot is cut out at the wide end 1 1/16 in. has wide by 4 1/2 inches deep. This end is rounded off to a radius of 3 inches. Five pegs, 1 inch diameter by 2 inches in length, are driven into the upper side. The holes are 1 inch deep and should allow the pegs to have a driving fit.

The upright is 27 inches high to the center of the



A WAGON JACK.

fairlead, made from 3 by 4-inch stuff. The end is rounded off to a radius of 1/4 inch, and a slot is cut in the end of the beam, and the slot in the upright cut likewise. It should be laid out accurately to the dimensions given in the larger side view.

When correct a hole is made in the upright cut likewise the two holes for the pegs *A* will be in a vertical line. When the lever is pressed down, as shown in the upper general view. The pegs *A* should have a loose fit, and be furnished with smooth wooden pegs or nails, to keep them in place, when the parts are assembled.

To operate the jack the lever is raised, as shown in dotted lines in the lower general sketch, and the beam slipped in place under the axle of the wagon, which should rest between one of the small pegs in the upper face. Bearing on the lever, it is pressed down into its lowest position, as shown in the upper sketch, raising the wagon wheel from the ground and securing it in that position indefinitely, without the least chance of its slipping back.

Swelling ground cannot be held by timber, means must be provided for relieving the pressure of the ground from time to time. It will cause little trouble if spacers are left between the timbers through which the pressure may be eased at intervals by removing some of the material. Expedients such as jacking with straw are valuable only until the swelling becomes sufficient to pack tightly the customers rubber staves. When this becomes packed solidly it transmits the pressure to the timbers.







**THE BRINKMAN BOATS**  
(Continued from page 186.)

The W. H. Mullins Company exhibited, at New York, several of its small steel boats, but the construction novel of these boats was a hull built of phosphor-bronze plates riveted together and attached to the ribs by means of U-shaped clamps passing over the latter and secured to the hull. These boats were constructed by the Davitt & De Groot Company, a firm which has had a great deal of experience building riveted steel-hull boats for the United States government. The phosphor-bronze hull has a great advantage over the steel hull on account of its non-corrosive qualities, and in addition to this the new construction does away with rivets through the ribs. In a 36-foot center exhibit by the same concern, there was installed a new type of hydraulic steering gear, which consists of two curved cylinders with movable plungers placed at the steering wheel and connected by means of a central copper tubing to similar cylinders placed at the rudder. The cylinders and tubing are filled with a mixture of oil and glycerine, a very slight movement of the steering wheel causes the plungers to move in opposite directions, thus causing the rudder to turn. The mixture used is not freezing, so that cold weather does not affect the steering gear. It appears to be a decided improvement over the usual form, since it is easily worked and is more or less self-acting.

Probably the most popular craft exhibited were the open speed boats, which vary in price from \$1,000 to \$5,000 or \$10,000. Twenty-five miles per hour was the highest speed guaranteed by any of the makers of these boats exhibited, and the majority of them do not make more than 15 or 20 miles per hour. For the man of small means who is content to travel slowly, there were boats (open launches) varying in price from \$100 to \$1,000. Some of these launches were fitted with automobile type. The cruisers were larger and more comfortably fitted out than ever before. The boats made it very convenient for their also and usefulness. An average speed of 10 or 15 miles an hour is all that is aimed at with this type of boat. In the 10-horsepower electric lights run from an ignition dynamo were fitted, while comfortable bunks, a small galley, etc., were the rule.

The exhibit of engine this year was a large one. While many manufacturers still stick to the 3-cylinder motor, this is used chiefly on low-powered, slow-speed boats having one or two-cylinder motors. The speed craft almost invariably are fitted with 4 or 6-cylinder motors of the 4-cylinder type. A 100-horsepower Mits & Wain reversible kerosene oil engine was one of the striking engines exhibited, also a 25-horsepower 6-cylinder 4-cylinder motor built for a motor by the Standard Motor Company. The Dean Manufacturing Company showed the 6-cylinder 50-horsepower 4-cylinder engine with which they made their record run from St. Louis to New Orleans last year in the "Bray Jay II." The Standard Motor Construction Company exhibited a new line of motors, including the 150-horsepower double-acting 6-cylinder engine used by the Russian government on its submarines. The smallest and lightest marine motor exhibited was the Waterman 12-horsepower 6-cylinder motor shown in a small 14-foot boat intended for a young lady. This motor has a weight of about 100 pounds complete. One of the novelties of the show was an inclined fly wheel having spokes around its periphery. The spokes of the wheel are made of these spokes helped to turn the motor, the flywheel thus acting as a rudder. A new form of motor, consisting of a small engine revolving within a turbine, also was exhibited. A specially built motor boat fitted with 150 components, and intended to be used in navigating the waters of Niagara, was also shown by the Standard Motor Company. With this



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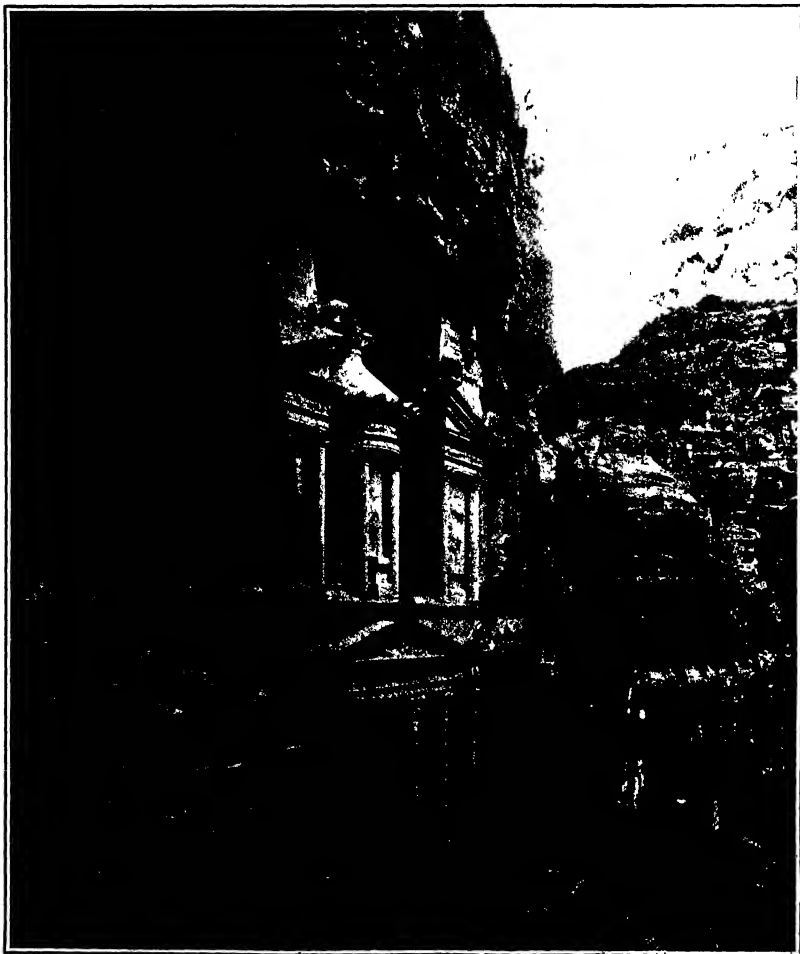
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El Khazneh of Petra (the treasury of Pharaoh) Petra.

This is in some respects the most remarkable of the beautiful temples and tombs of Petra, the rock town capital of Edom and later of the Nabataeans whose king Aretas, mentioned in 21 or 22 A. D., is supposed to have been as large as Damascus. This monument of antiquity is thought to be the work of the Romans being attributed by some to the Emperor Trajan who visited the place in A. D. 106. The rock of the temple is a pinkish-red granite. The imposing facade shows two rows each of six massive columns. It terminates in a minaret, temple crowned by a large arch and is covered with the treasure of Pharaoh. The angle at which the photograph was taken will show how the temple was cut from the rock.

A CITY KEWY OUT OF SOLID ROCK.—[See page 220.]



# ENGINEERING.

A recent wreck on the London & Brighton Railway, England, when an express left the rails and crashed into the railway station, has caused the attention of the construction of English cars. A Pullman car was comparatively little damaged, whereas the ordinary day coaches were completely wrecked.

The new single-phase electric freight locomotive which has been built for the New Haven & Hartford Railroad recently gave a test between New Rochelle and Stamford, a distance of 17 miles. The load consisted of thirty loaded freight cars, and the distance of 17 miles was covered in 27 minutes without pushing the engine to its full capacity.

In a paper before the Engineers' Society of West Virginia, E. F. Bulmash described a new type of bituminous gas producer, which embodies the good features both of the up-draft and the down-draft type, overcoming the production of tar and completely consuming the fixed carbon. There are two fuel beds, one operated as a down-draft producer to break up the volatile matter, the other as an up-draft producer to consume the fixed carbon, the resultant gas being taken off at the center of the producer.

Time was when it took nearly six years to build a battleship in private yards in the United States, but the construction of the "Connecticut" at the government yard at Brooklyn set a pace which has steadily accelerated. The "Mississippi," whose trials took place as recently as October, 1907, took 44 months to construct. The "Texas," launched in December, 1907, was built in 28 months, the "North Carolina" (cruiser), January, 1908, in 36 months, the "Michigan" (battleship), 1908, in 41½ months, the "Delaware" (battleship), October, 1909, in 27 months.

Great improvements are being made in the Trans-Siberian Railway which, in addition to being double-tracked, is being largely relocated with a view to the elimination of grades and the shortening of distances. When the work has been completed the distance from Paris to Peking will be 6,200 miles instead of 7,600 miles over the present line via Harbin and Wladivostok, and the fourteen days now consumed on the trip will be reduced to eight.

The value of these improvements will be as great from the military point of view as they will from that of commerce and freight trade.

Speaking on the relative economy of the single-phase and direct-current systems for steam railroads, Mr. George Gibbs is of the opinion that maintenance costs of the single-phase system as at present developed will be somewhat higher than those of direct current, though eventually they should be about the same. On the other hand, he estimates that about 15 per cent less energy would be required at the power house for the single-phase than for the direct-current system. Adding the saving in substation operation, he looks for a saving of from 4 to 5 per cent in the total operating cost in favor of the single-phase system.

The tremendous floods of the past season on the left bank of Panama have helped to demonstrate, even before completion, the wisdom of building a high-level rather than a sea-level canal. Through the swamp near Obispo the bottom of a sea-level canal would be some 60 feet below the general ground level, and at Gamboa, where the Chagres River pours its enormous and sudden floods across the canal cut, the river bed would be 90 feet above sea level. Under the sea-level canal, the river bed would be 100 feet above sea level. Under the sea-level canal, the river bed would be 100 feet above sea level. Under the sea-level canal, the river bed would be 100 feet above sea level.

There is great activity just now in experimental work in the direction of speed-reducing gear for marine turbines. We noted in our issue of February 15th that the Melville-McCormack mechanical gear has shown a shop efficiency of 40 per cent. The Parsons Marine Steam Turbine Company have installed a similar reduction gear on the 1,000-hp steamship "Toscanan," with which they claim to have obtained a shop efficiency of 48 per cent. The Westinghouse hydraulic reduction gear has shown a shop efficiency of 50 per cent. This last-named gear, however, is said to have the great advantage of being completely reversible.

Prof. C. Paul Mendenhall, of the University of California, has given a very interesting description of an enormous sea stack, 130 feet square by 6 feet deep, carried on a column of water at a height of 90 feet from the ground, which has been built up as a result of the action of the waves. The description, based on the limited bearing capacity of the local soil underlying Olympia, the fact that the sea stack is a result of the action of the waves, and the fact that the sea stack is a result of the action of the waves, is a very interesting one. The sea stack is a result of the action of the waves, and the fact that the sea stack is a result of the action of the waves, is a very interesting one.

# AERONAUTICS.

The latest German airship—"Parasol V"—left Bitterfeld at 10 A. M. March 10 on a voyage to Berlin. The circular city was reached on the morning of March 11, covered in 4 hours. This airship is the smallest non-rigid passenger-carrying dirigible yet constructed. Its length is but 30 meters (100 feet).

With the same make of 50-horsepower revolving-cylinder motor used by the ill-fated Delagrange, which drove his machine at the rate of 50 miles an hour, he flew 10 kilometers (6.21 miles) in 7 1/4 (45.82 miles per hour) and Plessan 5 kilometers (3.1 miles) in 4 1/4 (48.74 miles per hour) at the first hour of the last of the year at Heliopolis, near Cairo, Egypt. Both were awarded prizes.

The 1910 model Blériot monoplane has a body only 6.5 meters (21 1/2 feet) in length. The body is completely covered. There are wide horizontal fins on each side at the rear, forming a tail, and the horizontal rudder is in two parts, one of which is hinged to the rear edge of each fin. The tail resembles that of the Antoinette monoplane, but Blériot still uses a notogon-larson body instead of the V-shaped form which imparts to the Antoinette machine its excellent transverse stability.

The recent decision of Judge Hand against Peulhan in the Wright brothers' suit, the granting of a preliminary injunction, and the requirement of a \$25,000 bond for one month in case Peulhan wished to continue his flight, has put a sudden end to the series of exhibition flights in America by this daring Frenchman. The bond was reduced to \$12,000, but Peulhan's manager, although under contract to pay him \$5,000 per week, has brought the aviator to New York to await the result of an appeal. The case will be reopened on the 12th instant.

Gen. Brun, the French Minister of War, a month ago inspected at Villacoublay the four Wright biplanes which have been built for the French army. Colonel Lambert explained the mechanism but made no trial flight because of an extremely high wind. At the same time the army Antoinette and Farman machines were inspected at Mourmelon by an artillery officer, Commandant Estienne. On the 3rd instant Van den Horn made a 35-minute flight in one of the Farman biplanes, carrying a useful load of 201 kilograms (444 pounds). On March 4, the Commander of the 8th Regiment of Cavalry, General de la Motte, made a 30-minute flight in a similar machine. He also has been instructing Lieut. Aquaviva with success.

A man who has made a thorough investigation of the accident to the Blériot monoplane, which cost the life of Louis Delagrange, has concluded that the accident was the result of the aviator getting "tired" for an instant when he was flying low and was about to turn. It is this man's belief that Delagrange threw his control lever too far to the right, thus warping the wings too much and tipping the machine severely, and then too far to the other the result being that the machine swayed so violently that it tumbled over. It struck the ground upside down, and all the gear at the under side were found intact. A spring strut between the wings (which the constructor claimed had been left out) was found in place and unbroken. As far as can be ascertained, everything was in good order and the accident was not due to the failure or breakage of any part of the mechanism.

Now that Germany has produced a "non rigid" many new aeroplanes inventors are rapidly appearing. The latest design, known as the "Lanz plane," was type the first \$10,000 cash prize (the Lanz prize) was won by Herr Oskar Laitz. Dornier and Hildebrand are two of the latest successful experimenters with this type of machine. The latest machine, built by Major von Parvanel, who has a huge 110-hp (80 foot) monoplane fitted with a 110-horsepower motor. This machine is undergoing its preliminary tests on the shores of the lake of Pliez near Zurich, Switzerland. On March 1st Herr Parvanel attempted the first aeroplane flight to be made at Dornier. He rose to a height of 40 feet, when a violent wind gust captured the machine, which fell to the ground and was demolished. The aviator escaped with bad bruises.

The making and flying of model aeroplanes is a scientific diversion from which many can be learned. Several interesting new forms of aeroplanes have been developed from model-making, and many models have learned the behavior in flight of the various types of machines. Hence the first national contest of the Aeromobile Society for the Champs-Élysées and other prizes, which was held in the 6th Arrondissement, New York city, on the evening of March 3rd, was largely attended. Several small aeroplanes having plans made of wood were flown by L. L. Lock, Mr. Paulhan had a Leandry-type machine with a large set of propellers, one at either corner. All the models were launched from a table. The longest flight—448 feet—was made by the monoplane of Frederick Wethin, a 15-year-old boy. Other contests will be held weekly at the society.

# SCIENCE.

Prof. Marshall C. Parker of Columbia University announces his intention of attempting to ascend the Alaskan peak of Mt. Denali. He states that either he will reach the summit or prove that it can be reached only by an aeroplane.

The alcohol produced from sawdust and wood must not be confused with wood alcohol, for, although standard alcohol is produced from wood, it is produced directly by the fermentation of a pure sugar solution, into which the wood is first converted, and it is the same, both chemically and physically, as the alcohol made from grain.

And Rasmussen, the explorer, will sail in June for Greenland on an expedition which will consume four years. The ethnographic study of the Eskimos is the purpose of this expedition. One year will be spent at Cape York and a year each at Hudson's Bay and Crown Bay. After the navigation of Thiafa's Bay Rasmussen expects to circumnavigate Alaska and to sail to the Alaskan islands and return via San Francisco.

Mr. Ernest H. Shackleton, the Antarctic explorer, who is to lecture in this country, will arrive on the Lusitania on March 25th. Before the explorer leaves Washington, where he will be the guest of Ambassador Bryce, he will receive from President Taft the gold medal of the National Geographic Society. While in New York he will be presented with the gold medal of the American Geographical Society of New York.

Prof. R. B. Barnard of Yverkes Observatory informs us that on February 13th he secured a photograph of another exposure a photograph of Halley's comet, showing a faint tail of two degrees, equivalent to a length of about fourteen million miles. This is rather important in relation to the question as to whether the tail will reach the earth on May 18th from these photographs taken so far from perihelion, it seems that the tail will be empty long enough to reach the earth.

The Royal Geographical Society of Italy, at a largely attended meeting, ratified the recommendations of the committee relating to the bestowal of medals and other distinctions for the part played by the gold medal to Robert E. Peary for the discovery of the North Pole, after medal to Captain Robert A. Bartlett, who commanded the steamer "Roosvelt" on the Peary expedition, and a silver medal to the English knight Sir Shackleton, for his "nearest South Pole" silver tablet to the Duke of the Abruzzi for his expedition to the Himalayas where he made a record ascent.

The moving picture is now applied to educational purposes. Chemical laws are now exhibited on the screen. There are films illustrating the electrolysis of water, action of acids on metals and action of acids on organic compounds, etc. The most interesting of the screen many films enlarged, and the chemical action is clearly illustrated. Most unsavory but educational is a film illustrating the peevish of fly. The flies are shown laying eggs in unsavory places and before the eyes of the spectators the eggs develop in hours of wriggling maggots. In the final stage the maggot fly is shown in its last unsavory stage. Still another film exhibits the sublimity of fly. The flies are shown laying various articles with their feet and even availing a dumbbell as large as the insect itself.

In the possession of Knox Hall of Natural History with his invaluable specimens, Hamilton College is especially fortunate. By the kindness of the Hon. James Knox, D. D., '78, the original building was recently struck by a ball killed in the district of 100 miles of natural history specimens. The most important collection on exhibit is that of the New York State minerals, begun by the Hon. James Knox, D. D., '78. Among these specimens are found many of the best of their kind in existence. In addition to these minerals are 4,000 specimens of fossils and rocks to illustrate the geology of New York, 1,750 specimens to illustrate the geology of the United States, 500 fossils, mainly from the Miocene formation of Europe. Several thousand valuable specimens in paleontology, 10,000 specimens of over 100 different kinds of berries, from fresh water, and marine shells, 100 specimens of Japanese shells and insects. A large and useful exhibition of the North American flora, the result of 875 years of botanical study, search, and correspondence. A large and valuable collection of 600 berries, appropriately mounted. The Hall of Natural History is under the charge of Prof. William John Miller, D. D., an eminent authority on geology and mineralogy. Dr. Miller has a large collection of 600 berries, of the Roman Quadrangle, including Trevon Falls and the vicinity in Onondaga and Herkimer counties. This book was published by the University of the State of New York as Bulletin No. 126 of the Education Department.

# DRIVING PILES WITHOUT A PILE DRIVER

BY GEORGE H. LODGE

It may be of interest to many of the readers of the Scientific American to learn of an easy method of driving piles through the ice without the use of a pile driver.

Those who have tried to drive even a small post by hand while working in water or from a small boat have found it much more difficult than one would at first suppose. I was myself confronted with the problem of building a dock landing for a lake steamboat—a steamboat built to carry 300 passengers, being 70 feet long. The problem was to build a dock or landing safe and large enough to handle the people rapidly.

First we thought that it would be necessary to hire a pile-driving outfit, but my father, R. H. Lodge, devised a plan that works to perfection.

We used straight white oak piles not over one foot in diameter at the butt, which are cut to the length required usually from 20 to 35 feet. These are sharpened at the butt ends to a point and with an eye or thread is cut from the point of the stick back from three to four and one-half feet, according to the size of the pile.

It is important that the threads be cut as nearly the same distance apart as possible. A good man with an eye can cut threads that are mechanical. It is astonishing how many, with a little practice, can be cut in a day. It pays to use special care to the cutting, as it helps wonderfully in the driving. Piles that are from ten to twelve inches in diameter should have threads from three to three and one-half inches apart and two to two and one-half inches deep.

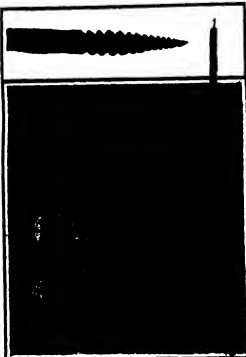
After the threads are cut the pile is ready to drive, which is done by chopping a hole through the ice at the desired spot, being careful not to make the hole over two inches larger in diameter than the pile, and have the eye act as a guide to keep the pile upright while driving it down.

If the pile is long and heavy, it is necessary to fasten three guy ropes to the top of it before raising the pile is raised, it is an easy matter to keep it plumb by pulling the ropes.

The pile is raised like a common telephone pole. In other words, a little at a time with pile poles, follow

up under with two planks spiked together in the form of an X.

It is a good plan to stand a plank in the hole and to lead the point of the pile rest against it, as it assists in placing the pile to the desired spot.



DRIVING PILES WITHOUT A PILE DRIVER.

It is also a great help to spike a short plank across the pile, temporarily, just above the threads, to keep the pile from shooting under the ice before it is vertical, whereupon it may be knocked off. The pile will then drop into the proper place.

Now you are ready to bind a pole (or sweep lever)

to the pile. This is done with a common log chain, care being taken to bind it so that it can be secured in the right direction. Hitch a sharp-shod horse to the outer end and lead him around the pile (capstan fashion).

It is an easy matter now to screw a large pile from four to eight feet into mud or gravel or to unscrew it and remove it.

The accompanying photographs illustrate the wood-n threads ready for use, and the plan of screwing in a left-hand threaded pile by the aid of a horse. We often put in smaller piles by hand, using two or three men instead of a horse.

We have recently taken out two steamer tie posts that have been in use for eight years, having begun to decay. These unscrewed posts we found had been in sixteen feet of clay and quicksand. It was necessary to hitch the lever below the water line, where the wood was sound, in order to start them.

The *Calvo Scientific Journal* for January last Mr. B. F. E. Keeling communicates an interesting paper on climate changes in Egypt. There is a strong belief among residents that changes have occurred within the last ten or twenty years (possibly due to increased irrigation) which are distinctly "manlike" without the aid of instruments. Mr. Keeling quotes the mean temperature at Assuan for each decade from 1870 to 1904, and for the four years 1904-8, but the results show that the differences are hardly greater than might be caused by differences of exposure of the thermometer. As regards humidity, also, there is very little evidence of any decided change during the last forty years. It is confidently asserted by many persons that the rainfall has increased during quite recent years, but the author shows that there is little, if any, evidence of such being the case. The total rainfall of any year is often influenced by the fall on a slope day, and is consequently very variable from one year to another, the driest year on record at Assuan in 1893, with little more than a quarter of its inch of rain, and the wettest, 1904, with less than 3 inches, the mean for 1857-1906 being approximately 1.4 inch.

## AN ARTISTIC REINFORCED CONCRETE BRIDGE

A COMING TYPE FOR COUNTY HIGHWAY BRIDGES

In country districts where the materials are readily accessible the reinforced concrete bridge should prove to be an ideal system for the construction of concrete bridges of moderate span. We say of moderate span, for the reason that the art of trussed bridge construction in reinforced concrete is as yet in too early a stage of its development to warrant its indiscriminate use in bridges of considerable span. In structures of moderate length, say up to about eighty or a hundred feet, if care is taken in proportioning the parts, especially at the joints, and very particular care is taken in securing a thorough bond between concrete and steel, the country concrete bridge should be as durable as any other type of bridge. The accompanying illustration shows a bridge of this class of the bowstring type, which was recently built in Canada. It has a span of 80 feet and provides a clear roadway 16 feet wide. The total weight is about 180 tons, and it contains about 17 tons of reinforcement in the form of plates and round rods.

The bridge was designed to carry a load of one hundred pounds per

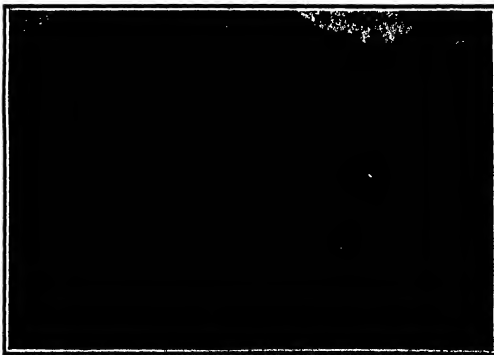
square foot evenly distributed, and it was tested for this load with an additional load of 35 tons represented by a herd of 70 cattle.

On the score of appearance it must be conceded that the design is decidedly pleasing. The intersection of the balustrade with the chord and web members having been worked out with considerable taste. The structure spans the Elizabeth River, in the counties of York and Peel, Canada.

No sooner had the first modest attempt at steel

ships by aerial electric waves been crowned with more or less success, than endeavors were made to direct the course of balloons and aeroplanes in the same manner. The American engineer Anthony has made experiments off Sandy Hook, with a small unmanned dirigible balloon, which he succeeded in guiding more than a mile seaward and bringing back to the point of departure. Prof. Winchell suggests the employment of unmanned aeroplanes for the study of atmospheric electricity and has designed an apparatus of this kind. It is obvious that such an apparatus, equipped with the necessary instruments,

which could be sent to great heights without danger and brought back with certainty, would be much more useful for the study of the atmosphere, and especially that of atmospheric electricity, than unmanned registering balloons, the recovery of which is always a matter of chance, or manned balloons and kites, the use of which is not unattended with danger in stormy weather. Balloons controlled from a distance by electric waves would also be very useful in the rescue of shipwrecked persons and for many military and other purposes. But—and this objection applies also to the wireless direction of ships and torpedoes—it is a long way from successful experiments in favorable conditions to uniform success in practical use.



A REINFORCED CONCRETE BRIDGE OF ARTISTIC DESIGN.

# Instrument for Detecting Violations of the Speed Laws

BY L. GORDON GLAZIER

A very ingenious instrument for recording the speed and license number of an automobile has been devised by two inventors of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The instrument, which is but little larger than a pocket kodak, consists of a double camera with a watch movement which controls the operation of the camera.

When an automobile passes at a speed that seems excessive, the operator trains the instruments upon it and releases the mechanism by pressing a button. Immediately the shutter of the upper camera is sprung

in the time interval, the second image is smaller than the first by an amount which can easily be measured with an ordinary scale, divided in hundredths of an inch; and knowing that the standard wheel tread is 54 inches, the distances of the two objects from the camera and hence the speed the automobile has covered in the time interval is easily found by the following law. The distance of any object from the lens is as many times greater than the focal distance of the camera as the length of any line of the real object is greater than its length in the photograph. This is a simple proportion in which three of the terms are known namely, the size of the object, the size of the image of the object on the plate, and the distance of the image from the lens. The fourth term of the proportion, the distance of the object from the lens, follows by simple division. However, the operator is saved all irksome computation by a table attached to the instrument.

To overcome the possible objection by the courts, the watch has been designed so that the operator of the instrument may actually see it during the process of taking the picture. This is made possible by simply boring a hole from the outside of the camera box to the back of the watch, which brings to view a dial around which travels a hand attached to the same pinion or staff as the regular hand of the watch. In order to see this dial more plainly, two mirrors have been placed permanently in such a manner as to illuminate it.

The instrument gives extremely accurate results, and can be calibrated from time to time on objects of known speeds.

The inventors believe that the instrument should be welcomed by autists as well as police. It is an impartial judge the personal element being entirely eliminated. A motorist who has been stopped does not have to rely on an officer's estimate of the speed, nor on the speed claimed by the officers operating a trap by means of stop watch and signals. Dozens of motorists are fighting cases every day who honestly believe that they were not overstepping when stopped. They would be perfectly willing to pay their fines if convinced they were violating the law. Even where the more rational view is taken that the speed alone shall not determine whether or not a man is violating the law, but that the speed taken in connection with the surroundings shall determine it. It is always a question of the officer's word against the autist's eye in the surroundings. This photographic speed recorder shows whether there were several vehicles near the automobile whether people were crossing the street, whether it was more than ordinarily dangerous to run at the speed indicated, or more than ordinarily safe.

A great advantage of the instrument is that it records speed over a short distance. In the congested portions of cities, near crowded cross streets and in similar situations, it offers the only existing method of measuring momentary bursts of speed. The record of any reckless driver can be easily obtained and a print sent directly to him, when he cannot deny the evidence of his own eye, and in many cases an arrest will not be necessary, as the offense will not be repeated.

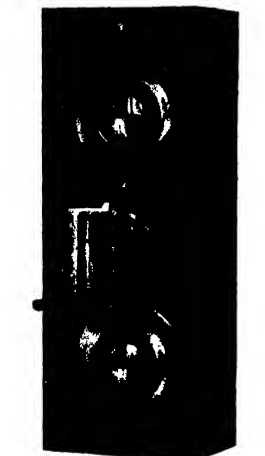
Respecting the legality of this speed recorder in a recent case that was strongly contested Judge Ham

mond of the Massachusetts Supreme Court said: "The result of the evidence did not depend upon the fluctuations of human senses nor on conditions where relations to results were uncertain, but upon the immutable working of natural laws, and upon the



PEED OF AN AUTOMOBILE SHOWN BY TWO CONSECUTIVE PHOTOGRAPHS

evidence the presiding judge may well have found that such experiments were likely to be more reliable as to the speed of the automobile than the conjectural statement of an eyewitness or the interested statement of a chauffeur.



DOUBLE CAMERA WITH WHICH VIOLATIONS OF THE SPEED LAWS ARE DETECTED.

taking a photograph of the receding automobile, and a moment later the other shutter is sprung, taking a second image of the automobile, whereupon the timing mechanism comes to a stop. The plate is developed by the regular process, and the resulting negative shows an image of the automobile near the operator with its license number distinct, and a second view of the machine taken at the end of the time interval in the center of the print are the photographs of the hands of the stop watch caught when the first and second exposures were made.

Since the automobile has traversed a certain space

## Sacredness Compulsions Paid to New Buildings in Antiquity

A superstition that still envelops a great part of the earth is that special firmness may be given to a building and that it may be protected from hostile influences by inducing a living creature, preferably a human being, in one of the walls of the building itself. This belief, which is particularly prevalent in the Balkan peninsula and, for instance, has given to the Roumanian Queen, Carmen Sylva, material for one of her most beautiful folk tales, has not been known as having had any hold in Italy hitherto. Recently, in the course of archaeological research, it was found that in the foundation of the Temple of Fortuna in Pompeii there was a hollow space in which nothing other than the skull of a tortoise was found which time had broken into four places. Here, consequently, was proof of the practice of immurement of a tortoise, which was enhanced by the disposition of the square blocks of stone of the creature's prison. In Italy this superstition may have passed at an early day into oblivion, as the sanctification of human beings was foreign to the Roman religion, and was practiced consciously only under Greek influence. As, however, the mortification of human beings among the old Greeks was not unusual, but in Greece, as well as in the adjacent countries the tradition of sacrifice to new buildings is still insisted. It may be

believed that in old Greece also the sacrificial immurement of new buildings was not unknown. Immurement of this kind of sacrifice in antiquity are certainly not frequent, all those of which we have any knowledge are attributed to the Greek Orient. Usually a maiden was sacrificed who, at the same time, became the guardian spirit of the structure. For this reason Trajan effected the erection in the theater at Antioch of the statue of the girl who has been sacrificed on the occasion of the foundation of the temple. The same sacrifice is practiced in a house or other building, so that its soul may live in the structure and never escape from it. At the present day a vicious sacrifice takes the place of such immurement. The animal sacrifice is practiced symbolically only, either by taking the measure of a person, or of the shadow, and immuring the string representing the measure or by incensing in the wall the burning of a stick of incense. It is also practiced such a vicious sacrifice in the tortoise of the Pompeian temple, and probably the tortoise was selected because this animal can live a long time without nourishment, and the builders believed that the creature was thereby achieving the longer the immured creature lived.

## The Mangano's Rope.

When death is caused by hanging what proportion does the pull to which the rope is subjected during the struggles of the victim bear to the weight of the body? This novel question has been asked and answered by experiment by Dr. Angelo de Donatella. The tension in such case was measured by a dynamometer attached to the rope. A living dog, suspended in such a manner that it remained quiet exerted a pull of 20 pounds, but the subsequent "hanging" of the same animal produced a pull of 42 pounds. With a larger animal the corresponding tensions were 50 pounds and 103 pounds.

Hence it appears that the convulsive movements of the victim may increase the tension of the rope to more than twice the weight of the body. This result explains the occurrence in the bodies of persons killed by hangings of serious lesions which it would be difficult or impossible to produce by hanging up a corpse. The strength of the rope must also be taken into account. If a body is found snatched by a rope the breaking strength of which is little greater than the weight of the corpse, it may fairly be inferred that the body was not suspended until after death. Hence the experiments furnish valuable data for determining the cause of death in such cases and will probably be made use of in some future detective story.

# JUPITER AND HIS SATELLITES

BY PROF. FREDERIC R. HONEY, TRINITY COLLEGE

Jupiter and his satellites command especial attention at the present time, owing to the fact that this greatest of all the planets is now and only to Venus in brilliancy, is approaching opposition which will be reached on March 30th Jupiter will then be both morning and evening star.

The comparatively great increase in the number of Jupiter's satellites from four to seven and possibly eight as revealed by the growing power of the telescope directs the astronomer's eye to a pulsing system the Jovian system.

The satellite which is nearest the planet revolves around its great primary in the short space of twelve hours, at a distance of only 68,000 miles from the surface, while the outermost moon shows its extreme remoteness from its center of attraction (the enormous distance of 7,430,000 miles) by a revolution requiring 265 days. Thus is exemplified a perfect conformity to Kepler's laws.

A small magnifying power reveals the elliptic outline of Jupiter, whose polar depression is as truly marked the equatorial and polar diameters showing a difference of over 6,000 miles.

In the plot of the orbit Jupiter's position is shown for the date of opposition, which is very near opposition, also for the oppositions from 1903 to 1911 inclusive. The average interval between oppositions is 399 days. But, in obedience to Kepler's second law, the planet's velocity at opposition is diminishing. The last opposition occurred on February 28th, 1909, and the next will occur on April 30th, 1911. At perihelion the velocity was accelerated. The dates of the oppositions, which occurred before and after the perihelion passage were respectively September 11th, 1903, and October 18th, 1904.

The five inner satellites revolve in orbits whose planes very nearly coincide with that of Jupiter's equator. This plane forms a small angle with the ecliptic, and may be represented approximately by a straight line (Fig. 1). The distances from Jupiter to the satellites are represented by the same scale as the planet. It is impossible to show the positions of the two outer satellites by this scale within the limits of this page, since their distance from Jupiter are over six times that between the planet and Callisto. It should be noted that all the satellites are nearest the same side of the planet at the same time, as shown in the figure. This view of the satellites' orbits is obtained when Jupiter reaches the positions A and B shown in the plot of the orbit. When Jupiter is near either of these points, the five satellites appear to move back and forth in straight lines, and at every revolution of each satellite there is alternately a transit across Jupiter's disk and an occultation by the planet. Fig. 1 shows Jupiter and the orbits as seen from the earth in 1908.

In 1902 this figure was reversed. During Jupiter's revolution around the sun in 1186 years, the planet and the satellites are continually changing their positions relative to the ecliptic. The plane of the orbit is inclined at an angle of 13 deg., and that part which is above the ecliptic is represented by the full line. The line joining the points V and X (the ascending and descending nodes) is the intersection of the plane of the planet's orbit with that of the ecliptic. In Fig. 1 a visual ray A from the earth tangent to the planet shows that, soon in this direction, Callisto is no longer occulted by Jupiter. The positions A and C, and between B and D, the orbits very gradually open out to the elliptic form, and at C and D the length of the minor axis reaches its maximum.

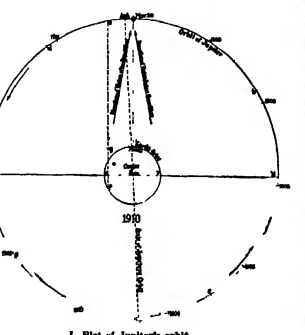
Fig. 2 represents the Callisto when the satellite no longer suffers occultation by Jupiter. Occasions of occultations evidently begin some time before the date when the eclipse opens to its maximum width. But the date of the orbits of the four inner satellites are smaller, and with them transits and occultations continue. There will be no occultation or transit of Callisto or its shadow this year after January 25th. The date of the transit was projected on Jupiter between 9 h 11 m and 10 h 5 m. In the plot of the orbits of Jupiter and of

the satellites the general directions of the lines of vision from the earth before and after opposition are indicated by arrows.

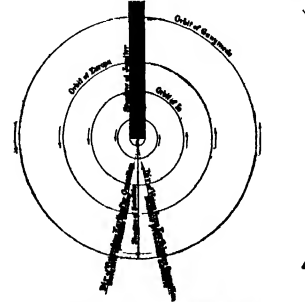
Obviously the planet does not occupy the same position to its orbit as that shown in the plot before and after opposition. But if this page be rotated clockwise and counter-clockwise through small angles, one position will represent Jupiter in its orbit before, and the other that after opposition. Before opposi-



Relative positions of Callisto, Jupiter and the Earth.



1. Plot of Jupiter's orbit.



2. Plot of Jupiter's orbit and his satellites' orbits.

JUPITER AND HIS SATELLITES.

tion it is clear that the transit of the satellite's shadow precedes that of the satellite, and after opposition the satellite preceded the shadow. For example, Ganymede's shadow crossed Jupiter's disk on January 7th between the hours of 14 h 44 m and 17 h 31 m (W. M. T.). The shadow was clear of the planet before the transit of the satellite commenced two hours and twenty minutes later. On June 28th the same satellite will cross Jupiter's disk between the hours of 14 h 54 m and 17 h 37 m, and the shadow will follow 2 hours and 37 minutes later. When a satellite passes into the shadow of its primary, it is described as "eclipsed." The date of the transits of the satellite and their shadows, and of the eclipses and occultations, are given in the *Martian Almanac* for ten months. For one month before and

after conjunction (October 1903) when Jupiter's proximity to the sun will be too close for observation, the phenomena of the satellites are omitted.

Observations of the occultations of Jupiter's satellites provide a valuable means for verifying the velocity of light. As the earth recedes from Jupiter after opposition, an occultation is observed to occur after a longer interval of time than that which would elapse if the planets were separated by a constant distance, and after conjunction, when the earth is approaching Jupiter, the intervals are observed to diminish. Light crosses the satellite's orbit in a little less than a thousandth of a second.

185,000,000

seconds = 16 m. 87 s. At the

184,250

date of opposition this year Jupiter's distance from the earth is 413.8 million miles.

Occultation of a satellite at this distance

413,800,000

is observed on the earth

18,330

or 37 minutes after its occurrence. The points

c and f are respectively the positions of Jupiter

and the earth at the same date when the projection

on the plane of the ecliptic of the line

connecting a planet with the earth is at

March 20th. At the second date, when the earth

is at f, observation of a phenomenon of Jupiter's

satellites occurs later than would be the case if the earth remained at the constant distance

(g) from Jupiter, and the difference in time is that represented by the interval g, or

of

$\frac{1}{10} \times 97$  seconds.

A.P.

A comparison of the earth and moon with Jupiter's satellite system is shown in Fig. 1 and 2, which are drawn to the same scale. The moon's distance from the earth does not differ very much from its distance from Jupiter. The revolution of the latter is accomplished in 177 days, and of the former in 29.5 days. If the distances were reduced to correspond with that of the moon from the earth, the period of the satellite would be even shorter than that which is given in the table. The fact that the revolution of the planet's satellites maintains them in their orbits in opposition to the great central force attracting them to Jupiter whose mass is 318 times that of the earth. In the table the diameters of satellites V, VI, and VII are not given. They are too small for accurate measurement, the diameters ranging from 50 to 100 miles.

JUPITER'S SATELLITES.

Name	Distance, Miles.	Period, Days.	Diameter, Miles.
I	118,000	1.76	300
II	151,000	3.55	400
III	226,000	7.16	500
IV	267,000	14.32	600
V	2,470,000	16.69	1,000
VI	6,800,000	688.0	1,000

That the controlling device for a single-phase car equipment need not be more complicated than for a direct-current car, states the Electrical World, will be apparent at once from the fact that any of the methods now used with the latter type of car can be applied immediately to the former without alteration. It is evident that by selecting a suitably low value of trolley E. M. F. the familiar series-parallel arrangement of motors with rheostatic acceleration can be applied to series motors of the single-phase type equally as satisfactorily as to those of the direct-current type. Moreover, with the alternating-current equipment it is possible to substitute resistance coils for the rheostats, and thereby eliminate a considerable portion of the energy dissipated as heat in the control circuits during acceleration. In addition, with the single-phase car there can be obtained, conveniently, any desired number of voltages to be impressed upon the motor circuits, and there is no objection to utilizing the E. M. F. to a single value, as is now done with direct-current equipment. To this fact, that it is attainable the essential difference between the controlling circuits of single-phase and direct-current cars.



# THE ROCK-HEWN CITY OF PETRA

## AN ALL BUT IMPREGNABLE ANCIENT TOWN

BY HAROLD J. SHEPSTONE

The view is taken from up to the south of the narrow valley called the Wady Musa (the Vale of Moses) in which the famous rock-cut city of Petra reposed in ancient times. Severely shot in from attack of the marauding desert tribes. It is on what bears the name of the Mountains of Olives, or called from the huge monolith pillars that have been made with incredible toil by cutting away from all around them the mountain top. Their height can be judged by comparison with the figure of a Bedouin standing by one of them. They are evidently Egyptian in their conception and design, as also are many of the pyramids and temples of Egypt.

### The rock-hewn obelisks of Petra.

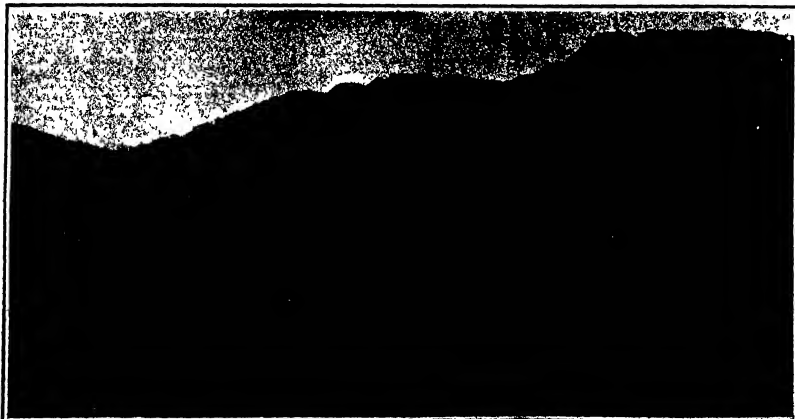
Unique among the many wonders of the Orient and the remains of hoary civilizations stands Petra the rock-hewn city the city so graphically addressed by the prophet as "Thou that dwellest in the clefts of the rock, whose habitation is high (Isaiah 41), and referred to in the challenge of the Psalmist (60:3) "Who will bring me into the strong city? Who will lead me into Idum?" It lies on the northwest edge of the great Arabian desert about midway between the Gulf of Akabah and the Dead Sea. Other ruins such as Palmyra and Baalbek, show crumbling piles of magnificent architectural monuments but in Petra, high up among the mountain crags that enclose it, are temples, theaters, tombs, and other structures, strong and indestructible, standing almost as perfect as when they were chiseled out of the living rock of which they still form a part.

These ruins (if ruins they may be called) that bear admiration by the variety of styles they embody, showing in the most ancient structures early native art intermingled with Egyptian and in the later magnificent edifices the best types of Greek and Roman architecture, and by the exquisite hue of the sandstone from which they were hewn, varying from the prevailing purplish red of the mountains and cliffs to the delicate pink and rose color of some strata, and the white crimson yellow and blue-veined veins in other places, rivaling the softness of

the plumage of birds or the petals of flowers. Petra, so long inaccessible because of its remoteness and the danger from roving Bedouins, may now be reached by a six hours' ride westward toward the Arabian from El Maan, a station on the new Mecca railroad. Prof. Gustaf Dalman, director of the German Archaeological School of Jerusalem and the author of a monumental work on Petra, has just paid another visit to this scene of his former explorations, in which he was accompanied by photographers of the American colony in Jerusalem, who secured a number of photographs of these majestic ruins, some of the most striking of which we here reproduce for our readers.

Petra nestling amid its precipices and cliffs almost in the shadow of Mount Hor, called by the natives Jebel Harun (Aaron) from the tradition that it was here on the top of the mount that Aaron died, is approachable only from the east through a deep and narrow defile which the little stream of the Wady Musa has in past ages cut out for itself in the red sandstone. The gorge opens in one place to about two miles in width for a distance of about a mile, and here, protected by mountains and precipices on every side, this remarkable town lay secure from attack from without. It was its impregnable position and its being on the great caravan route to the Red Sea from the north that gave it the importance it had as

a trade depot and stopping place. The approach was beneath a grand arched portal at the mouth of the Birk (as the deep ravine is called), some remains of the portal being still visible. It takes half an hour to follow the windings of the narrow path along the dark ravine, which is only from 10 to 20 feet wide, threading the course of the slender fringed stream bed until one emerges into the small open valley. The variegated sandstone rocks rise precipitately on either side to the height of from 100 to 165 feet, almost shutting out the light of day. One of our views shows the entrance to the Birk. Another is taken about twenty minutes in from the opening, giving a good idea of the narrowness of the defile and the precipitousness of the rock walls, while beyond, where the gorge widens a little, are seen the sculptured columns of the magnificent so-called Khazneh at Faroun (the Treasury of Pharaoh) although it is one of the latest of the rock-hewn monuments of Petra, being attributed to the Emperor Hadrian who visited the place in A.D. 131 and erected here a temple to Isis. Another of our photographs shows this imposing structure, which is justly regarded as one of the wonders of the East. The rock wall from which it is hewn is here an exquisite rose pink. It is in a state of remarkable preservation. The imposing facade shows two rows each of six majestic columns, one row above the other, with niches in which are rock-

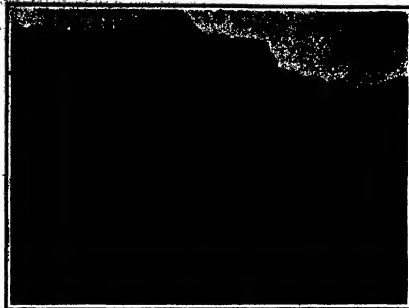


This is a general view of Petra, a city of antiquity carved out of the living rock. The entrance to the Rock City is the most striking gateway to any city on our planet. It is a narrow rift or defile, blocking a mountain of magnificent sandstone, rising through the rock as though it were the most plastic of clay. This

rock, or death, is nearly two miles long. Carved with marvellous skill, after the completion of some interior work (including the basins of the stream, the fountain line of the sandstone, the towering cliffs, the impossible ravine, the hillside, the mountain, and the fragments of blue sky above, the city stands unique.

PETRA: AN ANCIENT CITY CARVED OUT OF A MOUNTAIN OF SANDSTONE AND ENTERED BY A NARROW RIFT TWO MILES LONG.





The theater among the rock-cut ruins of Petra.

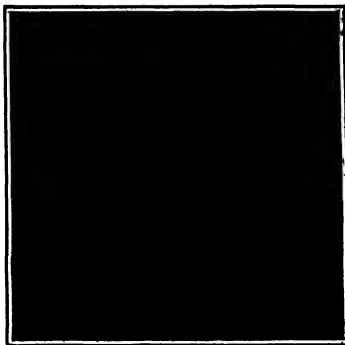


Ed Ber, one of the most remarkable of the temples and tombs of Petra.

hewn equestrian and other statues the whole terminating above in a miniature temple crowned by a huge urn, the entire height being about 65 feet. Within is a bare lofty room and some chambers.

A short distance beyond one emerges into the mountain-guarded valley in which the city lay, mounds of debris marking the sites of the former homes of the Petraeans, the population in the city's palmy days being estimated at from forty to eighty thousand souls. The rock-hewn structures chiseled in the precipitous cliffs on every side were public buildings and tombs rather than dwellings. Just on the left, as the valley is entered is the vast rock-cut theater in semicircular form, capable of holding 2,000 spectators. Here the workmanship is Greek. There are thirty-three tiers of seats. In this locality are some of the oldest tombs, including detached pyramids. Many of the oldest tombs were cut away when the theater was hewn out of the mountain side. One of our photographs is of the theater.

Standing in this small open valley one sees the façades of tombs and temples of many styles and dimensions with many niches for votive offerings. They are at all elevations, many low down on the mountain side, and others high up in the cliffs, with stairways cut in the rock to



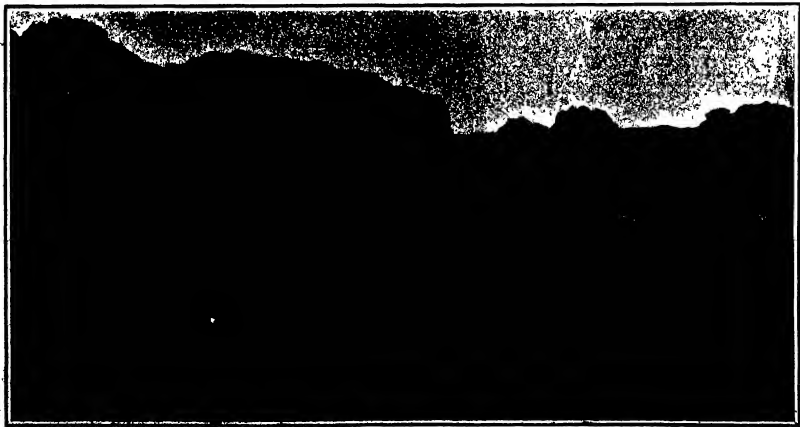
The Silk, the entrance to Petra, the impregnable rock-hewn city of antiquity.

reach them. While most of them stand out conspicuously others are hidden in the mountain recesses and lateral valleys. How eloquent are these silent pyramids and obelisks of Edom and Egypt, and those columns and capitals of Greece and Rome! What diverse peoples these tombs have looked down upon when living and given sepulture to when dead! And how many different religions have been represented by ministering priests at these shrines!

One of our photographs is of a tomb or temple in three stories cut out of the mountain wall on the east and showing a succession of similar buildings beyond. The façade of this tomb is not like most of the others in imitation of a temple, but of a lovely palace and it has been considerably damaged.

On the opposite side of the valley to the west stand the ruins of a masonry edifice called by the natives Kaer Parious (the Castle of Pharaoh), of which we also give a photograph. It was a Roman harbor temple.

Behind the Kaer Parious a rock-cut staircase leads up the rugged hill of the Acropolis to the Place of Sacrifice with its altar, pool, and court, all hewn out of the living rock. This was a typical holy place, or "high place," of the primitive (Continued on page 227)



among the ruins of antiquity. Chiseled the magnificent ruins of rock which enclose this ancient habitation, and mark how man lived, but no indicator of future, has escaped the ravaging hands of those entering with with all the beauty of architecture and art with temple, tomb, and palace, column, portico, and

perfection—with the mountains arounds present Petra is her witness and most severe form, and among the leafy bushes the ruins of years and will be the monument of this silent, beautiful "ruined city half as old as time."

PETRA: AN ANCIENT CITY CARVED OUT OF A MOUNTAIN OF SANDSTONE AND ENTERED BY A MYSTERIOUS SPLIT TWO MILES LONG.

## AN ELECTRICAL FEVER RECORDER

BY DR. ALFRED GRADENWITZ

Fever, i. e., the rise in blood temperature attending certain maladies is known to be the outcome of a spontaneous reaction on the part of the body against the microbes invading it. The opinion is therefore, erroneous that fever in all cases should be acted against in order thus to subdue the morbid state of the patient. Nevertheless, it is of the highest importance that the physician be kept informed of the variable temperature of the blood.

According to present practice, temperature readings are taken at regular intervals, say three or four times a day by a small dry thermometer. This practice obviously gives no information as to those oscillations in temperature which may have occurred in the meantime and which, in some cases, it would be desirable to know. A process allowing this important factor to be recorded continually and automatically, therefore, is worthy of universal attention. A firm of Berlin constructors, Messrs Siemens & Halske, have, recently perfected an apparatus achieving this result.

The apparatus is based on a very simple principle viz the alteration in the electrical resistance of platinum wire by variations in temperature. It comprises in addition to a coil of platinum wire a Wheatstone bridge and a self recording millivoltmeter.

The platinum coil is either introduced into some of the cavities of the body or fixed on the body. A double conductor of low resistance connects the coil with the bridge and millivoltmeter, which converts any variations in the resistance of the platinum wire and accordingly the temperature of the body into a deflection of the needle.

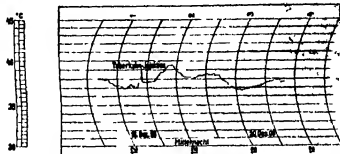
The current required to feed the apparatus is supplied by a small storage battery of four volts, the gradual drop in tension being compensated for in a simple manner by means of a rheostat and regulating resistance with coarse and fine adjustment. As the normal range of the recording apparatus comprises the interval between 70 deg and 45 deg C the curve registered are of sufficient distinctness for any therapeutical and scientific purpose.

The electrical fever recorder is constructed in two different types.

In the first type, the rotating coil of the millivoltmeter is suspended from a strip of metal, the curve being recorded on a paper tape about 45 meters in length which is moved along by a clockwork at a speed of 20 millimeters per hour. The useful width of the tape is 120 millimeters. Below the paper tape three moves under the action of a clockwork on taking ribbon, over which oscillates a pointer carrying at its end a pen. The position of the pointer is marked by a dot each minute. The series of points thus produced forms a distinct curve. The clockwork should be wound up once a week, a new paper roll being inserted every three months.

The second type comprises a rotary roll located between points, so that the apparatus is insensitive to any moderate oscillations while not requiring accurate horizontal adjustment. The registering tape

is wound together with a sheet of carbon paper round a drum. As in the former apparatus, a style marks time. The apparatus is designed either for a rotation of the drum (about 240 millimeters in periphery) in about 7 days or in 24 hours. The paper tape and carbon should be exchanged after each turn, which is a very easy matter. The dropping of the how occurs,



Record obtained with fever recorder, showing effect of tubercular illness.

In accordance with the rotation speed of the drum, and takes place either every 12 or every 24 minutes in order to allow for both speeds, the apparatus can be fitted with two drums, exchanged against each other by a simple manipulation. The useful width of the paper tape in this case is about 30 millimeters, i. e., somewhat less than in connection with the former type. This is why the one is generally used for accurate scientific investigations and the latter for ordinary clinical apparatus.

#### TREASURE HUNTING.

IN GREAT VARIOUS WAYS.

The United States Hydrographic Bureau and Coast Survey has charts of the Great Lakes and the Atlantic and Pacific coasts which are consulted eagerly by

to the likelihood they tell a whole history of shipwrecks and adventures, depths, currents, and other facts of local importance. The charts are, in fact, a record of the past. The charts show the position of wrecks, and it is not so long ago that no divers or explorers have been permitted to search for them. The charts are, in fact, a record of the past. The charts show the position of wrecks, and it is not so long ago that no divers or explorers have been permitted to search for them. The charts are, in fact, a record of the past. The charts show the position of wrecks, and it is not so long ago that no divers or explorers have been permitted to search for them.

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AN ELECTRICAL DEVICE WHICH RECORDS A PATIENT'S TEMPERATURE FOR EVERY MINUTE OF THE DAY AND NIGHT.

a large class of adventurers and hard, practical men of business and science, who are interested in the recovery of lost wealth through improved methods of deep-sea diving and wrecking. These charts are simple and unimpressive in appearance, yet might easily be mistaken for ordinary coast charts with bars and there dots to represent submerged reefs or rocks, but

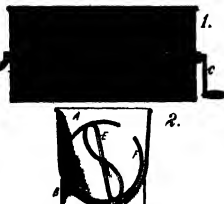
located about six miles southeast of Toledo, Ohio, but the wreck was in such deep water that only a very small fraction of her cargo was ever recovered. Here is a submarine copper mine which might tempt the most adventurous soul to risk his life in gaining. The chart of wrecks on the Great Lakes compiled by the Hydrographic Bureau and Coast Survey shows the relative depth of water and this simple record is the whole story of why overlying man has not been able to recover them. Divers working treasure in sunken vessels have learned that anything which lies more than 100 feet deep is very difficult, if not absolutely impossible to recover. The pressure of the water beyond that depth becomes so great that diving suits are apt to collapse and crush the wearer. We know from a study of the charts that hundreds of ships loaded with treasure have sunk in water ranging from 100 to 250 feet in depth and if diving suits could be withstood the enormous water pressure at the lowest depth and enable the diver to work easily, enormous fortunes could be quickly made.

The whole history of treasure hunting under the water has been marked by man's futile effort to fight against the pressure at great depths. One hundred feet below the surface of the sea, the pressure is about fifty pounds to the square inch. The ordinary diving suit of rubber is sufficed by compressed air, which is supplied at the depth needed. Halfway one hundred feet below the surface, the diving suit is frequently collapsed. There have been many fatal accidents in attempting to work below the 100-foot mark. For instance, the steamer "Pewee" was located in Lake Huron, a depth of 200 feet, Toledo, Ohio, went down to inspect it, and was found up dead. The steamer was in a depth of water approximately 200 feet. Two other divers in the last few years met the same fate. In 1897, a diver was (Continued on page 227.)



## DOUGH-MIXING APPARATUS

Pictured in the accompanying engraving is a device adapted more particularly for kneading dough, but which is also applicable for mixing, stirring, or churning any material for household or culinary



DOUGH-MIXING APPARATUS

purpose. The machine comprises an approximately rectangular receptacle *A* formed, however, with a curved bottom, and an outer casing *B*, which acts as a support for the receptacle. The end walls of this mixing machine are provided with journal bearings, in one of which a crank handle *C* is supported. The other journal consists of a socket *D*, adapted to receive one end of a spirally curved stirrer blade *E*. The opposite end of the stirrer blade is formed with a threaded hub into which an extension of the crank handle axis is screwed. Secured to the stirrer blade at each end are a pair of outwardly projecting arms or curved fingers *F*, the object of which is to retain the material that is not properly stirred and mixed by the main stirrer blade. In use as the crank handle is turned, the fingers tend to feed the material toward the center, so that it is fully acted upon by the main blade. We are informed that in practice this type of stirrer kneads and mixes the dough thoroughly and evenly in a comparatively short time. By holding the stirrer blade and turning the crank in a reverse direction, the latter will be unscrewed from the hub so that both the crank and the stirrer blade may be removed from the receptacle. A patent on this mixing mechanism has been granted to Mr. Stanley B. Ray of McConnellsburg, Pa.

## IMPROVED STEEL LADDER

In the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN* of November 14th, 1908, we published a description of a collapsible step ladder. An improvement upon this form of ladder has recently been patented, which is provided with an upper section that may be removed and replaced with a shorter section, thus reducing the height of the ladder. As shown in the accompanying engraving, the ladder consists of the lower side-rails *A*, connected by means of sliders with the upper side-rails *B*. The ladder is collapsed by swinging one side against the other, but normally the rails are held apart by means of a diagonal brace, such as shown on the lower section of the ladder. The steps *G* of the ladder are hinged to one of the side-rails as shown in Fig. 1, while at the opposite side they are provided

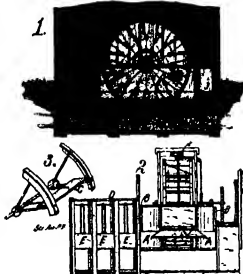


IMPROVED STEEL LADDER

with brackets *D*, in which are slots adapted to engage hinges pins secured to the side-rails *A*. This slot and pin connection provides the necessary play when the ladder is collapsed. The pins on which the steps are hinged lie at right angles to the rails *A*, and in order that the tread surface may be horizontal, the steps are made of a substantially wedge shape, as indicated in the illustrations. The top of platform *H* of the ladder is also hinged to the rails at the points *FF*, which lie on an axis at right angles to the rails *A*. To support the ladder in its normal inclined position, two legs *G* are provided. The legs are connected by the usual links *H* to the rails *A*, and at the upper ends they have extension pieces that are hinged to the rails *B*. When it is desired to shorten the ladder, these extension pieces with the upper rails *B* are withdrawn from their sockets. Then a top piece, such as indicated in Fig. 2, is applied to the ladder, the four short legs of this piece being inserted in the sleeves at the upper ends of the rails *A*. The legs *G* are now made fast to the rails *A* by means of pins *J*, which pass through them and also through the legs of the top piece. To prevent the legs *G* from spreading too far they are retained by means of brace bars *K*. The links *H* in this case are unnecessary and are folded upon them selves, as indicated in Fig. 2. Mr. William J. Dimmell Box 162, Brooklyn, N. Y., is the inventor of this improved step ladder.

## NOVEL CURRENT WHEEL

A number of advantages are claimed for the wheel illustrated herewith, namely that it does not require the use of dam, it regulates itself to the rise and fall of the stream, uses only the surface current, is equipped with feathering blades, and is provided with means for preventing the parts from freezing fast in cold weather. The wheel is supported on pontoons, as indicated at *A* in the illustration.



NOVEL CURRENT WHEEL

The pontoons are connected by means of links or parallel arms *B* to a fixed framework supported on piles driven into the bed of the stream. Fig. 3 shows the construction of the blades used on the wheel. The spokes of the wheel are arranged in two parallel sets which are bifurcated at their outer ends. The blades *G* are hinged to rods connecting the parallel spokes and have free play in the bifurcated portions. This provides a very strong construction, and enables the blades to accommodate themselves to the current so that there is no lifting of the water as in an ordinary water wheel. It will be evident that as the water rises and falls, the wheel will rise and fall with it so that the blades will always extend to a uniform depth into the water. However when the water rises the surface current is apt to be very swift, and it is necessary to reduce the flow past the wheel. This is effected as follows: On the upstream side of the structure a wing *D* (Fig. 2) is built out diagonally into the stream, so as to direct a large portion of the current between the pontoons and against the water wheel. In this wing are a number of flood gates *H* connected by means of ropes and pulleys to rods the pontoons *A* in such a way that as the water rises, the gates will open, permitting the water to flow through them, and thus cutting down the current that strikes the wheel. To protect the parts in cold weather, a casing is built over the wheel, at the top of which is a suction fan *F*. This is belted to the wheel as shown in Fig. 3. Through a duct *G* a current of warm air is conducted to the interior of the casing and thence is sucked out of the top of the casing by means of the fan and delivered through the pipe *H* as indicated by the arrow. At the up- and down-sloping sides of the casing, hoods *J* are placed, which open close to the surface of the water, and prevent the air from drawing in cold air instead of the air

through the duct *G*. The inventor of this improved water wheel is Mr. W. P. Spooner, Box 2 "The Manor," Carletonville, Saskatchewan, Canada.

## CAR-RETAINING DEVICE FOR RAILWAY CURVES

In order to insure the safety of cars when rounding curves, and to prevent the car wheel flanges from having undue frictional engagement with the rails, a safety mechanism has recently been invented, which is pictured in the accompanying engraving. It consists of a central rail *A*, that is supported on the ties



METHOD OF RETAINING CARS AT CURVES

and is strongly braced by means of anchoring devices *B*, which are imbedded in the ground and terminate in plates *C*. The object of these plates is to prevent the anchoring devices from working upward. The illustration shows a portion of a car truck passing over the rail *A*. The axles of the truck are connected by means of auxiliary trusses *D*, below the main trusses, on which blocks *E* are supported. Designed to travel around these blocks *E* are endless chains *F* fitted with rollers. The rollers are pressed by the blocks *E* against the guide rail *A*. As the truck passes round a curve the rollers tend to keep it in place. Ordinarily the forward wheel on the outside of the curve tends to bear against the rail, owing to the fact that it is rigidly connected with its mate on the other side of the curve, and hence it cannot travel faster than the latter. The result is that the flange on the outer wheel is subjected to considerable wear. The retaining device here shown, however, will prevent the flange of the outer wheel from being unduly pressed against the rail. The guide rail serves to prevent spreading of the rails, and keeps the cars from leaving the track. The inventor is Robert Delee, of Pulis, Cal.

## MASSAGE APPARATUS

A patent has recently been granted upon a device for securing a vibrator to the hand for application in the operation of massage. The apparatus may be adjustable to adapt it for use by different persons and may be securely clamped to the hand, so as to impart to it the vibratory movement that is used in certain massage treatments. As shown more particularly in Fig. 2, which is a cross section of the device with the vibrator removed, it comprises a padded cushion *A* provided with two plates *B* and *C* which terminate in horns *D* and *E* that fit the palm of the hand. These horns may be covered with sheets of rubber if desired. The plate *C* is formed with two lips, between which is mounted a screw *F* and the latter is provided with a knurled thumbpiece, whereby it may be



MASSAGE APPARATUS

turned. The plate *B* is fitted with a nut *E* that can engage the screw, and as the screw is turned the plates are relatively adjusted to bring the horns closer or move them farther apart. In this way the device may be clamped on the hand. The cone *A*, however, renders the device comfortable to the operator. Projecting from the forward end of the device is a bracket *J*, as indicated in Fig. 3, to which the vibrator mechanism is applied. Fig. 4 shows another form of vibrator, which has a threaded stem that engages a socket in the bracket *J*. A locknut *K* serves to make the vibrator fast. This type of vibrator is sometimes equipped with a handle, as indicated by dotted lines, so that it may be used without attaching it to the hand in such a case however various "applicators" are secured to the threaded stem to take the place of the operator's hand. Fig. 5 shows another form of vibrator, which is fastened to the bracket by means of screws. The inventor of this massage apparatus is John Sallatino, Broadway near Spruce Morris Park New York.

#### STREET INDICATOR FOR CARS

The desirability of having the streets announced by means of a conspicuous sign in a street car has often been urged, but hitherto efforts in this direction have met with little success. Quite recently when a device of this type was about to be adopted on an important city line the objection was raised that it would obstruct and detract from advertisements placed in the cars. This objection is overcome in the apparatus shown in the accompanying engravings, which not only announces the streets but also displays advertisements at the same time. The inventor hopes that by making the device self-paying as well as a convenience to the public, it will meet with better favor than street indicators heretofore devised. The prominence of an advertisement placed where all eyes would be concentrated upon it should make this the most valuable advertising medium. It is the inventor's idea to use a succession of advertisements so that the display could be changed at each street with the street number. The sign display and street indicator is arranged to be hung at any suitable point

The railroads have long recognized the fact that what is needed is not a machine to take the place of the engineer, but one which will act as a check upon the engineer without taking the responsibility from his shoulders—a system that will perform the single

The railroads have long recognized the fact that what is needed is not a machine to take the place of the engineer, but one which will act as a check upon the engineer without taking the responsibility from his shoulders—a system that will perform the single

The advantage of this telephone system will be appreciated by passengers who can use it to communicate with their homes or to conduct business while en route, and the train dispatcher is enabled to run into direct touch with the various units along the line which are under his charge. In this system the track is divided into block sections, and the train as it enters each block electrically tests the block ahead to determine whether

metal frame of the locomotive. Should the magnet be interrupted the magnet *R* would be deenergized, permitting the valve *V* to open, thus putting on the brakes and blowing the whistle *W* with air from the train line. At the same time the lamp *L*

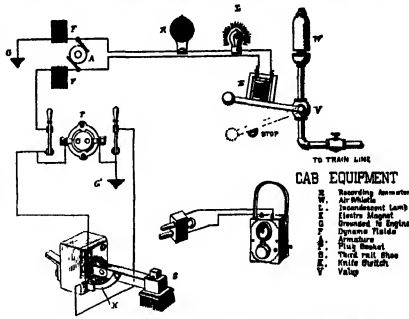


FIG. 1—DIAGRAM OF ELECTRICAL APPARATUS AND CONNECTIONS OF THE CAB OF THE LOCOMOTIVE

would be extinguished and the ammeter would record the time when the interruption occurred. The field circuit is grounded in the locomotive at *G* and *G'*. Between the fields and the ground *G'* is a knife switch *A* mounted on a third rail shoe *H*. At the side of each block extending for a distance of fifty feet is a rail *F* (Fig. 2). When the shoe *H* engages this rail it is lifted, opening the switch *A* and interrupting the circuit of the fields through the locomotive. However, the circuit of the fields would not open unless there should happen to be a broken rail or a train in the next block.

Alongside the track are two lines, *C* and *D*, one of which is connected at intervals with the rails of the track while the other is connected with the third rail sections *F*. These lines *C* and *D* run to a station house where the circuit is completed through a switch that may be opened by the engineer in charge of the house whenever he desires to stop the train along the system under his control. The line *C* contains a switch *S* for each block section, which is held in closed position against the tension of a spring by means of an electro-magnet *R*. The latter is connected in series with the rails of the track and is energized by a battery *B* at the opposite end of the block system. In case of a breakage in one of the rails, or should a switch be thrown open, the magnet *R* would be deenergized, permitting the switch *S* to open and thereby break the field circuit of the dynamo on the approaching train with the consequent setting of the brakes as described above. The same result would follow if the circuit through the magnet *R* should be short-circuited by a train on the block. At *P* (Fig. 1) is a plug socket adapted to receive the telephone plug connection. The telephone circuit is completed past the switches *S* and *S'* to a battery *B*. This relation permits the passage of the alternating current of the magnet and telephone, but prevents the passage of the direct current to the dynamo so that telephonic communication is not interrupted by the block system.



STREET INDICATOR FOR CARS

in the car and immediately after passing a street the mechanism is actuated to announce the next street and display a fresh advertisement. This change is effected by means of contact plates which are secured to the cross wire supporting the trolley wire. The contact plate engages a spoke of a wheel, causing the latter to make a quarter turn and momentarily close an electric circuit coming from the wire that supplies current to light the car. This momentary impulse actuates a relay in the apparatus contained within the case of the indicator, and by means of a small electric motor the web on which the numbers and signs are printed are turned to the required degree. Should one of the plates become detached from the cross wire the conductor can operate the indicator by means of a switch. When the end of the line is reached the mechanism is reversed so that the streets will be announced consecutively in the reverse direction. Should the car cross a different set of streets on the return trip, instead of running the web forward for the whole round and then rewinding at the starting point the web may be arranged to bear the streets of the return trip interwoven with the streets of the forward trip, and a shutter may be employed to cover the street names of the first part of the trip, exposing only those of the return trip. The inventor of this street indicator is Mr. H. A. Lewis, 214 South 11th Street, St. Louis, Mo.

#### AN AUTOMATIC RAILWAY SAFETY SYSTEM

It is a comparatively simple matter to develop an absolutely automatic railroad system in which the engineer will be entirely dispensable and with the train will run under electrical control from some central controlling station. The reason this has not been done so far, however, is because no entirely automatic engine is as safe as one controlled by an engineer

there is any obstruction on the rails or whether the rails are broken. The accompanying diagram illustrates the equipment used. On the locomotive there is a shunt wound dynamo driven by a small steam turbine which is supplied with steam from the boiler in series with the armature of this dynamo is an incandescent lamp *L*, a recording ammeter *R*, and an electro-magnet *E* which serves normally to hold the arm of valve *V* on the airbrake pipe of the train. The fields *F* of the dynamo have their circuit completed through the

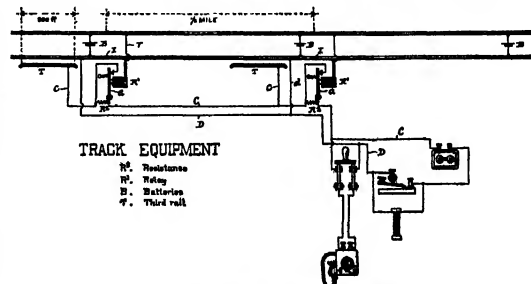


FIG. 2—THE TRACK SAFETY AND TELEPHONE SYSTEM





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of the coal on your forge**

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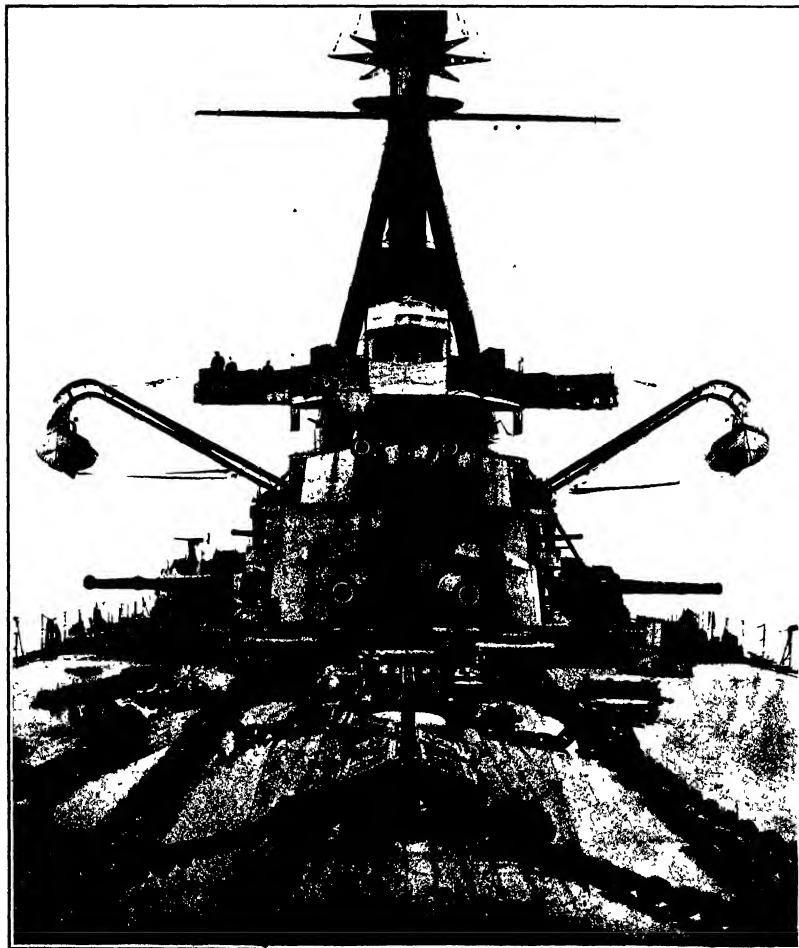
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Vol. CXL—No. 16.  
ESTABLISHED 1845

NEW YORK, MARCH 19, 1910

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This view is taken at the bow looking aft. It shows eight 12-inch and four 4.7 inch guns trained directly ahead. This is the first ship to carry twelve 12-inch guns and she is the most powerful vessel in commission at the present time.

THE MIGHTY ARMAMENT OF THE NEW BRAZILIAN DREADNOUGHT "MINAS GERAES".—[See page 240.]

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## HAWAIIAN NEWS-ADVERTISER

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## NEW YORK HATHAWAY, MARCH 19TH, 1910

The Editor of the Scientific American, New York. I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your issue of March 12th, 1910, and to inform you that the same has been forwarded to the proper authorities for their consideration.

## A TRIUMPH OF MODERN STEAM ENGINEERING

AMONG the years brilliant successes of the steam turbine is the Hathaway, the results of which have been obtained at the Fifty-ninth Street power house, which operates the heavy service of the New York Subway. Here by the introduction of a low pressure turbine between the low pressure cylinder exhaust and the condenser not only has the output of the present reciprocating engine been doubled, but there has been made possible an increase of nearly 100 per cent in the economical capacity of the whole plant.

In a recent issue of the Scientific American we gave a preliminary statement of the truly remarkable work which is being done at this station. At that time one of the turbines was in place and the tests had not been carried to full completion. In the interim, more complete data have been secured, and at the last meeting of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers a paper was given by H. G. Supt. Superintendent of Electric Power of the Interborough Company, and T. Platt, in which a very complete statement of the installation and its results was made public.

During 1908 it became apparent that the rapidly increasing traffic in the Subway would require it necessary to provide additional power for the winter of 1909-1910. The units chosen were standard of the 7,500-kilowatt (maximum rating) compound Corliss engines and three 1,250-kilowatt turbine units for lighting and signal purposes. Of these engines and generator units the authors of the paper say: "In general they are the most satisfactory large units ever built, as five years' experience with them has proved."

In considering the problem of securing an additional supply of power electric transmission of power from a hydraulic plant was rejected because of the high cost of a double transmission line from the near net available water power and the impossibility of getting reliable service.

The gas engine, it will surprise many of our readers to learn with offering the highest thermodynamic efficiency would have cost at least 15 per cent more than an ordinary steam engine and its maintenance and operation account would have been from four to ten times greater.

The alternative of building more reciprocating engines of the type already installed was rejected in favor of their most satisfactory performance because of the high first cost and the small range of economical operation (between 7,000 and 8,500 kilowatts), the water raising very slightly beyond their limitations and the authors of the paper say: "In general they are the most satisfactory large units ever built, as five years' experience with them has proved."

As between the installation of high pressure and low pressure turbines, it was found that by combining a low pressure turbine with the present engine at least 50 per cent higher power could be secured than with a high pressure turbine alone, and it was finally decided to place an order for one 7,500-kilowatt (maximum rating) turbine unit above in this name "the company would not only get an increase of 100 per cent in capacity of the combined engine and turbine," but at the same time give the engine a new lease of life by bringing them up to a thermal efficiency higher than that obtained by any other type of present plant.

The net results obtained with this first installation are summarized as follows. An increase of 100 per cent in maximum capacity of plant, an increase of 146 per cent in economical capacity of plant, a saving of approximately 85 per cent of the condensed steam for return to the boilers, an average improvement in economy of 15 per cent over

the best high pressure turbine results, an average improvement in economy of 25 per cent (between the limits of 7,000 kilowatts and 15,000 kilowatts) over the results obtained by the engine units alone and, lastly, an average unit thermal efficiency between the limits of 6,500 kilowatts and 15,000 kilowatts of 50.8 per cent.

These results are surely entitled to be considered as constituting the low pressure turbine one of the greatest triumphs of modern steam engineering.

## AN AMERICAN CHALLENGE

KEY WEST, by virtue of its geographical position stands in the same strategic relation to the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea as does Gibraltar to the Mediterranean, and its naval and military importance, which have always been recognized have been greatly increased by the results of the late Spanish war and the construction by the United States government of the Panama Canal. The transformation of Key West into a great naval and military station which shall rival in importance the fortress of Gibraltar is advocated at considerable length in an article by Commander W. H. Beecher, U. S. N., Commander of the 15th Naval District, which appears in the March number of the Journal of the Military Service Institution. The first part of the Commander's paper is devoted to an argument for the more complete cooperation of the army and navy forces. The army and navy should be as intimately connected as are the navy and the marine corps, and this connection should include, in the first place, both the personnel and the materiel, and ammunition should be of the same general type, with the latter interchangeable and supplies and stores should all be of one standard. It is admitted that close relations between the army and navy would be subject to certain limitations, but the Commander argues that it is essential that the coast artillery corps and the navy should be intimately associated for the efficient defense of our seaboard and that a definitely assigned portion of the navy to act as Navy-Coast-defenders, and in this class should be included second-class battleships or older battleships, the old armored cruisers, and the old torpedo cruisers, and tugs. "Their cooperation in the defense of any particular naval base should be definitely arranged in time of peace and they should manœuvre and fight together in time of war," says the Commander of the coast defense service, whether he be an army or a navy officer.

In his proposal to make of Key West an impregnable fortress, it is pointed out that the present defenses at Fort Taylor are inadequate for the reason that battleships can lie at the entrance bay seven miles south of Fort Taylor, beyond the range of the 12-inch rifles of the batteries at Fort Taylor, and that a ship without being exposed to any danger, the remaining velocities of projectiles from the direct firing 16-inch and 12-inch guns being insufficient to penetrate the armor of any battleship, whereas these same 16-inch guns on a battleship could shell the city of Key West and completely destroy it.

This consideration brings the Commander to his novel proposal for rendering Key West impregnable. He points out that in place of high hills or a bunk rock as at Gibraltar, for the mounting of coast defense guns Key West Harbor, twenty-five miles in length, is sheltered on the north by a line of low reefs and shoals which form a complete protection to the side while seven miles to the south of this line there is a parallel line of eastern shoals, some of which are scarcely washed at low tide and some more than eight feet above high water. To his mind the only defense worth considering that it could scarcely be considered, but Commander Beecher proposes to take our monitors and older battleships which have passed the period of usefulness on the high seas and mount them in selected positions upon these reefs, and utilize them as permanent turret forts. Thus, for instance, selecting the shoal known as Rock Key, where there is a small narrow harbor, he would install on the old monitor "Amphitrite" by the removal of her propelling engines, haul her into the harbor, build around the vessel a dyke of piling, rock, and riprap, and thus make the ship into a permanent fortress. The old ship and the ship with mechanically degraded and depolished. He estimates that the work would not cost more than \$50,000, and he claims that the sea-coast defense would be increased by a double turret fort containing four 16-inch breech-loading rifles and provided with admirable protection. The vital of the fort, that is the ammunition rooms, turret turning gear, etc., would be protected not only by the armor of the ship but also by many feet of the impenetrable earth and riprap. The deck of the monitor would be about eight feet above mean low water, and the riprap would be carried up the sloping face of the harbor, leaving only the turrets and superstructure exposed.

The ship as thus imbedded would furnish, says the Commander, a complete, modern double-turret fort with every necessary feature to operate the guns, and with quarters for the officers and men of the garrison, and moreover, the entire cost of the installation would be less than that of the construction of such a ship in the navy for one year. The monitors "Masthead," "Terror," and "Vindicator" could be installed upon the adjacent reefs, and the range of the sixteen 16-inch and 12-inch guns of these forts would command a large area of the Straits of Florida, and especially that part which is used by westbound vessels entering the Gulf of Mexico which navigate close to the Florida reefs to avoid the strong current of the Gulf Stream and the shoals. He believes that the dyke would be extended in each case to form a small harbor of refuge for torpedo boats and submarines. Referring to the proposed island fortifications for the defense of the approaches to the Chesapeake, it is suggested that it would be a great economy if one of our old battleships such as the "Oregon" was used as a central point about which the island could be built.

Now, it is a question of great interest and of unquestionable moment, whether this very novel proposal of the Commander does not provide an opportunity to greatly lessen the useful life of the battleship. In view of their enormous and rapidly growing first cost the rapidity with which these instruments of war depreciate in military value is something altogether new. For years past the battleships have been built to last the first line of battle, in ten years time they are becoming obsolete, and in fifteen years' time they must be relegated to the limited role of coast defense. The depreciation is not in the guns and armor but in the motive power, speed, and coal capacity. Many of these obsolete ships, because of their powerful armor and armament, would be perfectly well able to stand up in the first fighting line, if they only possessed the requisite speed and maneuvering quality, and if it should be found practicable to utilize them in the way suggested by Commander Beecher, their powerful guns and heavy protection would render them most formidable when mounted as part of the permanent fortifications of our sea-coast defenses. This suggestion is certain to excite a widespread interest, and we commend it for discussion for the purpose of suggesting to our growing circle of our readers who follow closely the development of naval and military material.

## PAULHAN'S FLIGHT EXAS NEW YORK

VIATOR LOUIS PAULHAN succeeded last week in getting the bond which he is required to put in to the United States for \$5,000 for one week, and on Friday, March 11th, he made two exhibition flights at the race track near Jamaica, L. I., before some 800 invited guests. William Wright and his laymen were interested spectators of the flight, and Paulhan would attempt to fly with his vertical rudder tied or else without using the stabilizing raps or ailerons. There was an 8 to 16-mile breeze blowing, and by starting against the wind Paulhan left the ground after a run of about 75 feet. He rose rapidly, and in the course of the two circuits of the track, made in 2 1/4, he reached a height of 75 to 100 feet. The biplane flew well and was not affected appreciably by the wind. Despite the sharp turns the machine did not tip very much in making them. It appeared to rock and pitch slightly, but was always under perfect control. The descent was by contractions. The flight may be made at any point in the United States that is convenient for the aviator, who must notify the Aero Club of America or the Scientific American a sufficient time in advance to award the trophy for 1910. The committee of the club to officially observe it. The competition in International, and foreign aviators are invited to compete for the trophy whenever occasion allowed may permit.

## REQUIREMENTS FOR THE INTERNATIONAL AMERICAN TROPHY FOR 1910.

THE third annual competition for the handsome trophy given in 1907 to the Aero Club of the United States by the Scientific American and the American is now open to all aviators. As aviation has at last reached a stage where country rights of a considerable distance are being made, it has been decided to award the trophy for 1910 to an aviator who makes the longest cross-country flight in excess of 50 miles, which has been fixed as the minimum distance. A roundly flight of 35 miles each way will also suffice for the trophy. The flight may be made at any point in the United States that is convenient for the aviator, who must notify the Aero Club of America or the Scientific American a sufficient time in advance to award the trophy for 1910. The committee of the club to officially observe it. The competition in International, and foreign aviators are invited to compete for the trophy whenever occasion allowed may permit.

The dates of the International balloon and aeroplane races for the Bennett trophies have been fixed by the Aero Club of America. The balloon race will be held at St. Louis on October 17th, and the aeroplane race above the Homestead, Pa., will be held (probably) on October 22nd. Plans are also on foot to hold big aviation meets at San Antonio, Texas, in April, at Atlantic City, N. J., in July, and at St. Louis in October.

## ENGINEERING.

**The United States Army** has recently adopted a new type of machine gun which can be carried by one man, while two such guns with their support of stands and ammunition can be packed upon a mule. The new weapon can be fired from the shoulder. The barrels are carried in duplicate, and can be rapidly changed when they become heated from continuous firing.

In a recent communication to Flight on the relative military value of aeroplanes and airships, Col. Capper of the British army believes that the improved aeroplane will have the advantage of airships. He predicts that the future aeroplane will be able to ascend to heights of 10,000 feet and over, from which it will swoop down and destroy the more slowly moving dirigibles below.

**The New Haven Railroad** has proposed to the city of Boston to enter into the joint construction of a tunnel between the North and South stations in that city. They offer to spend \$16,000,000 on the construction of the tunnel which is to be electrically operated, provided the city will bear the expense of \$10,000,000, which it is estimated will be the cost of the purchase of the necessary land.

One of the most remarkable features of the New York Public Library, now under the direction of the late Mr. J. P. Morgan, is the huge stack room, 80 feet wide, 300 feet long and 60 feet in height, containing seven tiers of stacks. The metal work of the stacks alone weighs about 3,000 tons, and recently estimating for the painting contract it was found that merely to pass once through the multitudinous mass of stacks it would be necessary to cover seven miles of distance.

The last annual report on the shooting in the British navy shows that the percentage of hits to rounds fired dropped in 1907 was 64.67. In 1905 it was 50.92, in 1904, 54.00, in 1907, 55.18, and in 1908, 58.12. The significance of the figure is, of course, evident when it is stated that in 1907 the size of the target was greatly reduced, the number of hits in that year being consequently only slightly greater than in the year preceding.

The placing of a large order by the Admiralty for liquid fuel has led to exaggerated statements in the London *Express* to the effect that the British navy contemplates the practically exclusive use of oil fuel. There is no truth in this statement, for only a few hundred tons of it will be carried in future battleships as an auxiliary to coal and oil will continue to be used as fuel in certain classes of torpedo boats. Great Britain possesses a large amount of oil, and would warrant a drastic change of this character.

A general scheme for constructing a narrow break water to the entrance of the Panama Canal has been approved, and the preparatory work is being done. The breakwater will protect the canal from the waves of Volcan, and the vessels which are making the north entrance to the canal from the violent "norther" which prevails from October to January. There will be two jetty of rock, which will extend from Toro and Manzanillo points until they reach depths of water of 45 and 44 feet, respectively.

Some invidious statements were made recently by Representative Rainey about the new 14-inch coast defense gun, which is undergoing test at Sandy Hook. In the course of which he spoke of the gun as having "burst" on trial. As a matter of fact, the gun has shown excellent results, and given much satisfaction to the army men. The accident, which was a trivial one, consisted in the breaking of a part of the mechanism of the disappearing carriage, which delayed the tests only a few days, and was quickly made good.

It is now officially stated by the Pennsylvania Railroad Company that the four tubes under the Great River and the electric service as far as Jamaica will be placed in operation on May 15th. The trains will run, under a five-minute headway, from the new tunnel at Thirty-third Street to Jamaica within a minute, in 18 minutes. The main yard, station, and offices on Long Island will be built at Jamaica, where \$1,000,000 will be expended for this purpose. The tunnels to New Jersey will be in operation by July 1st, and the lines along the north shore to Great Neck early in January, 1911.

**Long-Range Engineering** Mr. A. A. C. Swinton describes a model steam-propelled, self-propelled, or C. A. Parsons of turbine type, which made successful flights in 1909, thus antedating the Langley aerodrome by three years. The boiler, 3½ inches in diameter, supplied steam to a cylinder 1½ by 3 inches. The total weight of the engine, propeller and water being 1½ pounds. The aeroplane consisted of two wings and a tail built of a silk-covered, cane framework, the whole apparatus with engine weighing 3½ pounds. The model made several flights of about 100 yards distance, coming down when the steam pressure was exhausted. The boiler, which carried 60 pounds, was heated by a spirit lamp.

## ELECTRICITY.

In an article in *La Revue Electrique*, on the effect of high temperature on insulating materials used in dynamoelectric machinery it was pointed out that conditions not shown any thing when exposed to temperatures below 105 deg. C. but that at 115 deg. C. it begins to deteriorate and above 125 degrees it rapidly disintegrates.

The expectation for efficiency of the New York telephone service has spread all over the world. In Paris the service has been so poor of late that the subscribers have organized to demand improvement. Quite recently the *Revue des Postes et des Telegraphes* of France applied to the vice-president of the New York Telephone Company, asking if he would be willing to train six telephone officials from Paris in the various methods employed in New York. The request was gladly accepted.

An office was recently opened in Chicago by the Telephone Company which employs the Heliway rapid telegraph system. As described some years ago in the *Scientific American*, a perforated paper tape is used, by which the signals are transmitted over the line at high speed. To avoid the overlapping of successive signals because of the line capacity, each signal is made up of a positive impulse followed by a negative impulse. At each station the message is recorded on a chemically prepared tape.

A recent number of the *Electric Italy* magazine describes briefly a peculiar electric locomotive used for canal haulage near Livorno. The locomotive runs on a quartz, which has to be heated clear for the passage of the train. In order to secure the requisite weight for adhesion, the locomotive is built in the form of two inverted U connected at the top with a rider. The entire machine is only 20 in. high, so the drying motor had to be placed in the upper part of the structure. The locomotive thus straddles the track, and travel up and down the quartz without disturbing the track, which passes between the U's and under the connecting rider.

A special type of motor has been built for a British powder factory in which no air has been taken into the engine of the motor. The motor is of the type which will stand explosion of dust or gases which might find their way into it. The joints of the motor are packed with hemp rope dipped in tar, this being cut by a special device, thus rendering them air-tight. The bearings are also specially packed to prevent the escape of hot gas in case of explosion within the motor. No ventilation for the interior of the engine is provided, but the casing is furnished with corrugations which furnish a large cooling surface.

In the discussion which followed the reading of a paper on underground conduit construction for large transmission systems before the American Institute of Electrical Engineers in Chicago the following illustration was given to point out the advantages of concrete over this because of its lower thermal resistance and its better heat resistance. A burn-out occurred in a 1,000-horsepower 230-volt station in the middle of a 9-foot outlet from a manhole. On examination it was found that the conductor had been completely consumed, but the concrete was burned to only a quarter of an inch while the cable in the duct above and below showed not the slightest injury. Had tile been used instead of concrete, the heat developed would have been sufficient to damage the conduit very seriously.

The gravel run factory at Washington, D. C. is supplied with six cranes four 10-ton cranes on the first track, a 110-ton crane on the next track above and a 20-ton crane on the third track which is 160 feet above the ground floor. The track is 100 feet long running the full length of the gun factory. The shrunk pit is located at one end of the shop making it a difficult matter to call a certain crane. Located in an antechamber system has been arranged on each crane with a push button for each crane located on a board close to the pit. These buttons are connected to the annunciator in the crane cab by light trolley wires strung along the wall of the beam that may be seen at night at the pit of the crane can be called by pushing the button. If the crane is busy the call will show on the annunciator.

The very first day of the inauguration of letter telegrams proved the need of this new service. The communication and gave promise of a great future. The principal business was done between the large commercial centers, such as New York, Boston, Chicago, St. Louis and New Orleans. By this system a 300-word message sent at night at the price of the ordinary day message. At the receiving end the message is deposited in the nearest post office for delivery by the first morning mail. Thus the wires are kept as busy at night as in the daytime. A letter can be sent in fifty words, so that quite a lengthy message can now be sent to distant points in less time and cost than formerly.

## SCIENCE.

On March 8th *Scintilla* suddenly became active again. There was a continuous eruption for twenty-four hours of small stones and sparks, accompanied by internal detonations. Several flames sprang, from which gas and lava emerged in great quantities.

**Prof. Wilhelm Trabert** has been appointed director of the Central Institute for Meteorology and Geodynamics at Vienna, succeeding the late Prof. Josef Maria Foerster. An director of this institution he is the chief head of meteorology in Austria.

**Dr. Felix Ebner** of Vienna has completed the great treatise on meteorological optics begun by the late Prof. J. M. Foerster. In 1902, about two-thirds of which had been published up to the time of Foerster's death in 1908. It is the only extensive modern work on this subject.

The commission appointed to examine the *Leaning Tower of Pisa* has reported that it thinks the foundations may need strengthening. A spring exists under the tower, the water of which is raised by steam pumps for the use of a local factory. As the bed of the spring is emptied, it is feared, a subsidence of the ground on which the campanile stands will follow.

**Dr. Herman C. Bangs**, director of the American Museum of Natural History, announces that up to last August, at least, V. Steffensen and H. M. Anderson, the museum's Arctic explorers, were safe. A letter from Mr. Steffensen, dated August 10, 1909, from the Arctic Ocean dated August 1909, 1909 has been received telling of the adventures and successes of the party.

The task which the American north polar expedition had set itself to perform in the spring of 1909, Sir Ernest Shackleton was much harder than was generally recognized inasmuch as no one had ever landed in the place where the exploring party purposed to land. Indeed, no one had ever seen land there although there was an ice cliff 150 feet high which was called land Still, Americans might find land in that locality.

**Dr. Le Faugays** recommends a process of disinfection which consists in blowing upon the contaminated surfaces a current of air saturated with sulphur dioxide (600 to 800 deg. F). This process may be applied not only within buildings, but also to the surface of streets, yards, etc. The apparatus is heated by petroleum lamps. The sulphur dioxide gas is produced by dry distillation of sulphur, which only destroys disease germs but it is very efficacious against flies and other vermin.

**Kuhn** has devised a process for the manufacture of sulphuric acid based upon the employment of the ultraviolet rays emitted by mercury vapor lamps. A mixture of air and sulphur dioxide is introduced into a tower, lined with lead, into which water is injected in fine jets. Under the influence of the ultra-violet radiation of lamps in the tower, the sulphurous acid is entirely converted into sulphuric acid. Several towers are connected together. The strength of the sulphuric acid solution obtained in the first tower can be increased by spraying it instead of water, into the second tower. In like manner, the product of the second tower is sprayed into the third, and so on. In the last tower, however, pure water is again used as soon as any sulphurous acid appears in the escaping gases.

**The Zeppelin North Polar Expedition** "Committee met recently under the Presidency of Prince Henry of Prussia. Count Zeppelin, Prof. Hildebrandt and Prof. Leake were among those present. The committee discussed the programme for the summer's work which will be done in the Arctic region. The expedition is for the purpose of studying the conditions. The government will be asked for the use of the *Zeppelin* "Nordland" for about two months. The expedition will start for Svalbard on the 1st of June. A Norwegian ice steamer will be used for the purpose of forcing an entrance into the polar ice and the expedition will return at the end of the summer. Apparently no ship will be taken for summer use.

For once the bacteriologists and hygienists, who usually appear to delight in stamping little folk as noxious a creature which will reassure those persons who are afraid to eat green peas, have discovered that he had discovered soil microbes in the interior of vegetable stalks. From this discovery resulted the condemnation of sewage farms and, indeed, of all market gardening. It is not really surprising that the employment of manure. Fortunately this opinion has not been shared by all bacteriologists. In order to solve this problem which is so important from the hygienic point of view, Dr. Hildebrandt and Nouri have undertaken a series of experiments. They have endeavored, by every possible means, to infect plants with microbes. In every case however, they found it impossible to obtain colonies of microbes from the interior parts of the plants. It is therefore concluded that the microbes in the soil do not penetrate into the interior of plants, but remain entirely upon the surface.

### NEW AEROPLANES AT HOME AND ABROAD

THE "HARRIS" NO. 2 "AEROPLANE."

A noteworthy aeroplane so far as actual flying is concerned is the "Harris" No. 2 of Messrs. McCurdy and Baldwin, who are still working with Dr. Hill near Baddeck, Nova Scotia. As our photographs show, this biplane is an excellent flyer. It has made a considerable number of more or less lengthy flights above the ice of Lake Bras d'Or, in a number of which passengers were taken.

The planes of the McCurdy and Baldwin machine

are 40 feet long by 7 feet wide at the middle, decreasing to 5 feet at the ends. The wing tips which are double and attached at each end of the main planes, are about 5 by 5 feet in size. They are hinged near their front edges, and rocked in the usual manner by means of a fork fitting around the aviator's shoulders. The horizontal rudder consists of two superposed surfaces spaced 20 inches apart, and mounted 15 feet in front of the front edge of the main surfaces. The surfaces of this rudder are 12 feet by 28 inches in size. A biplane tail is also used, the planes being the same size as those which form the front rudder. This tail is mounted 11 feet from the rear edge of the main planes. The horizontal and vertical rudders are operated by a wheel in the same way as on the Curtiss biplane. In other words, a push forward or a pull backward on the wheel directs the machine downward or upward. Turning the wheel to the right or left steers the machine sideways.

The motive power of this biplane is a 6-cylinder Kirkham automobile motor of 40 horse-power. It is water cooled and develops its rated power at 1,400 R.P.M., at 3,000 R.P.M. it develops 48 horse-power.

The radiator is novel, consisting of thirty flattened tubes  $7\frac{1}{4}$  feet long by 3 inches wide by  $5/32$  inch thick. These tubes are curved from front to rear in the same manner as the main planes, and sufficient lift is obtained to support the weight of the radiator and water carried. The motor is geared to a single 7-foot 8-inch propeller having a 6-foot pitch, by means of a chain, the ratio being 5 to 6. The thrust obtained is sufficient to drive the machine at a speed of over 40 miles an hour.

The chief features of Messrs. McCurdy and Baldwin

of the aeroplane. The usual three-wheel chassis, first used by the Aerial Experiment Association, of which Messrs. McCurdy and Baldwin were members, is fitted to the machine.

After making numerous satisfactory flights above the frozen surface of the lake, Messrs. Baldwin and McCurdy were visited on the 8th instant by Major Munell of Ottawa, who represented the military department of Canada. The two inventors made five exhibition flights for this officer, and finally he consented to make a flight as passenger with Mr. McCurdy. A very satisfactory flight of several minutes' duration was made. Messrs. McCurdy and Baldwin made a number of flights last summer and fall in Canada, and the Canadian government is very much interested in their machine, and will doubtless eventually purchase one for military use. The noteworthy point about this machine is that its makers have built it sufficiently large to carry a weighty and reliable motor, and there is little doubt that the machine is capable of making extended flights without difficulty.

#### THE NEW HERRING BIPLANE.

The best constructed aeroplane on exhibition at the Boston show, as noted in previous issues of this Journal, was the new biplane of A. M. Herring. The photograph of this machine, reproduced above, was taken at the time of the trial flight on March 1st, and it gives a very good idea of the biplane's novel features. The spread of the planes is about 28 feet, and the forward-most wing about 4 feet, the total supporting surface being 220 square feet. A 12-horse-power Curtiss motor is mounted upon the lower plane at the rear, and carries upon its crankshaft a 4-bladed 6-foot propeller of 6-foot pitch, designed by Mr. Herring. The total

(Continued on page 236.)



The Herring biplane, showing novel stabilizing fin.

This new biplane has several new features, such as foot operation of the horizontal rudder, fin for automatic transverse stability, a skid instead of wheels, etc.

was a biplane are the use of a comparatively heavy 6-cylinder automobile motor and the fitting to the machine of a biplane tail of the same shape and size as the horizontal rudder. The 6-cylinder motor has been found superior to the 4-cylinder for automobile work, but this is the first aeroplaner, so far as we know, to be fitted with this type of motor. The motor is placed low down upon the lower plane in order to keep the center of gravity low while the propeller is mounted higher up, so that the center of thrust shall be as near as possible to the center of resistance



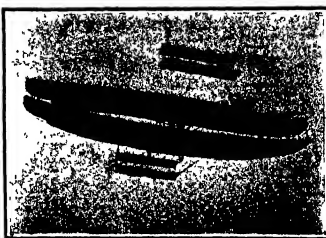
Capt. Baldwin's novel biplane.

The rudder above the upper plane is worked by a fork fitting about the aviator's shoulders. It corrects the side-slipping of the aeroplane.



Messrs. McCurdy and Baldwin flying in their "Badcock No. 2" biplane.

This is the first aeroplane to be equipped with a six-cylinder automobile motor. It has made many successful flights in Canada.



Rear view of Curtiss XI, his monoplane, showing the new tail.

Note the complete covering of the body, and the large horizontal stabilizer at the rear end of the tail.



Sir Hiram Maxim standing behind his new biplane.

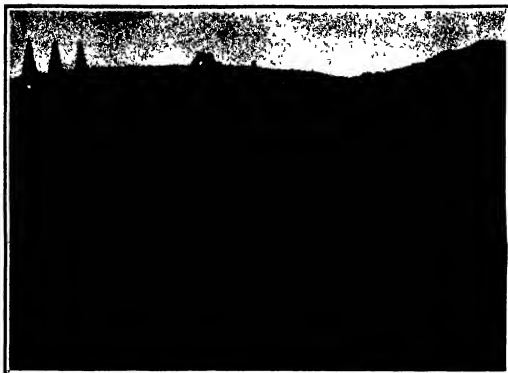
This machine is smaller in many respects to the inventor's gigantic aeroplane built nearly 20 years ago.





# BUILDING THE OLIVE BRIDGE DAM FOR THE CATSKILL WATER SUPPLY.

Work on the Catskill water supply, which will provide New York with five hundred million gallons of water daily, is making steady progress, as will be evident from the illustrations of this work which are herewith presented. Briefly stated, the scheme consists of the construction of a large reservoir in the Neopus watershed in the Catskills, with a storage capacity of 127 billion gallons and an aqueduct 92½ miles in length for conveying the water to the New York city line. The Ashokan reservoir, as it is called, will supply the city with 250 million gallons daily in addition to the 275 million gallons now available in the reservoirs of the Croton watershed. As the future needs of the city demand it, reservoirs will



Present condition of Olive Bridge dam as viewed from north bank.

be built in the Rondout and Schoharie watersheds adjoining the Neopus Valley and from these three dams it will be possible to draw sufficient water for the full capacity of 500 million gallons daily of the new aqueduct. The latter passes through the Croton watershed and in two years time, and before the full completion of the Ashokan reservoir, a portion of the water stored therein will be available for delivery through the new aqueduct to the new Croton dam. The work is to be completed by February, 1915. The Olive Bridge dam which will create the Ashokan reservoir, is a huge structure with a maximum height from the lowest foundation of 240 feet and a width along the crest of 4,820 feet. The central portion immediately above the river is built of cyclopean masonry and extends for 1,000



A completed section of the 92½-mile steel-and-concrete aqueduct.



Upstream side of Olive Bridge dam, diversion tunnel for carrying river during construction.



Site of dam, showing the 6-foot pipes for passing river through the work.



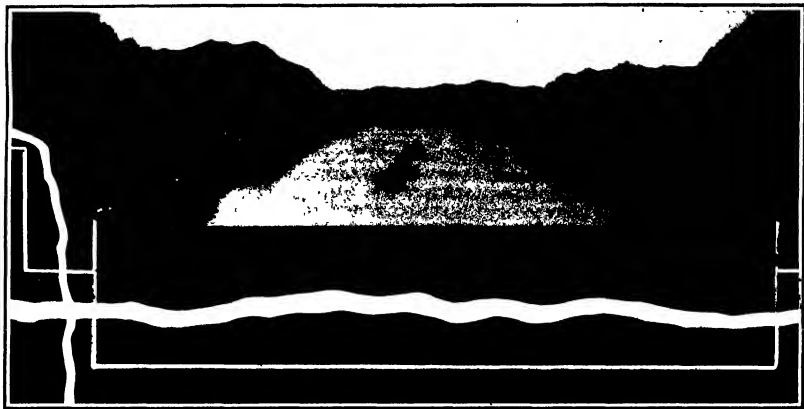
Placing steel reinforcement for the concrete aqueduct.

feet in width. The roof of the dam consists of a central masonry core wall and carefully laid and rolled earth. In addition to the main dam there are two series of embankments known as the Beaver Kill and Husky dikes, the former extending for 1,114 feet and the latter for 2,280 feet. In addition to these works there is a waste weir, 1,100 feet in length and a dividing dike and weir 2,200 feet long. Taken altogether the masonry and earthworks necessary to class the valley depression and raise the water in the diverting light up-slope five and one-half miles in aggregate length.

had been reached, a large culvert, 35 feet wide by 40 feet high, of sufficient size to take care of any possible floods coming down the valley, was formed in the wall of the dam. As soon as the vertical walls had been carried up a sufficient height to accommodate the river, the latter was diverted through the culvert and the 8-foot pipes were removed. Some interesting work was done in building the roof of the tunnel, a series of framed steel brackets or cantilevers being placed on each side of the opening, from which the wooden forms for the arch of the tunnel were suspended. Then as the masonry was laid, a series of

above mean sea level. Its thickness will be 35 feet at the crest, its maximum thickness at the base about 200 feet, and the masonry work will contain 550,000 cubic yards of material. The maximum width of the earth-and-core-wall wings of the dam will be about 800 feet, their top width, about 34 feet, and the total quantity of embankment will be about 2,000,000 cubic yards. The elevation of the discharge will be 890 feet above tide level.

The Beaver Kill dikes, which have a total length of about 2.3 miles, will have a maximum height of about 110 feet above the original surface, and they will con-



Cross-section of the Hudson River near Cora Wall, showing how the Catskill water supply will be carried under the river in a pressure tunnel in the solid rock 1,800 feet below tide level.

The accompanying photographs, for which we are indebted to the MacArthur Brothers Company, who have contracted to build the main dams of the Ashokan reservoir for over twelve and a half million dollars serve to illustrate the character of the work. The earliest of the operations consisted in providing a bypass in the form of two 8 foot steel pipes for carrying the flow of the Esopus Creek past the dam during the work of excavation, and the construction of the masonry up to the level of the river. When this level

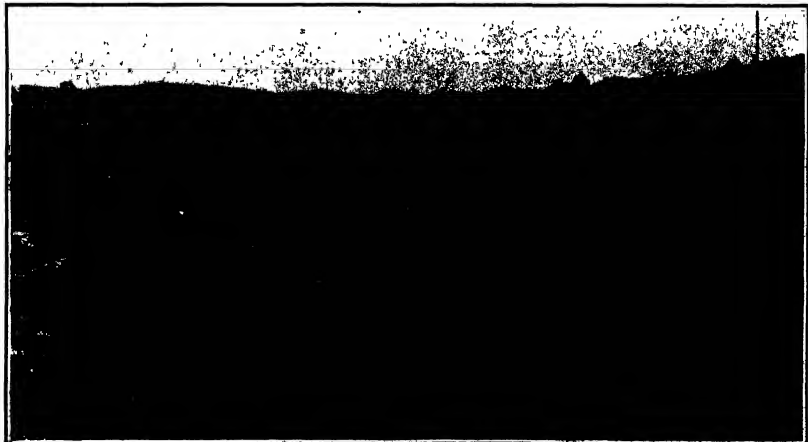
heavy steel I beams were placed transversely to the axis of the tunnel from which the forms with their superincumbent load of masonry were suspended by vertical tie-rods. To facilitate the flow of the water, the wooden forms will be left in place until the dam is completed. Then the flow will be diverted, and the tunnel will be filled in with masonry. When this is completed, the filling of the reservoir will take place.

The top of the Olive Bridge dam will be 610 feet

tain about 5,000,000 cubic yards. Like the earthen portions of the Olive Bridge dam, they will be built with a concrete core wall. The reservoir will be divided by a dike into two basins. This dike will have a length of 1,100 feet, and the dividing weir will have the same length.

It will be readily seen from these figures that the Ashokan works are on an immense scale. They involve over 2,000,000 cubic yards of earth and 425,000

(Continued on page 239.)



Valley of the Esopus. Dam in foreground with river flowing through completed portion of temporary tunnel.

BUILDING THE OLIVE BRIDGE DAM FOR THE CATSKILL WATER SUPPLY.

**Imperial German Patent Decision.**

A very important case was recently decided by the Supreme Court of the German Empire, First Civil Bench, in which the rights of American patentees in Germany are defined. The facts in the case are briefly these:

The National Cash Register Company of Berlin, a limited liability company incorporated under the German law, is the owner of three German patents. In Germany the patents must work an invention within three years from the date of publication. That term had expired for all four patents. Proceedings were instituted by Schubert & Salomon Machine Works in the Imperial Patent Office to revoke these patents on the ground that they had not been worked to an adequate extent in Germany, and that in all their essential parts the cash registers protected by the patents were manufactured by the National Cash Register Company of Dayton, Ohio, and were imported from the United States into Germany. In its defense the National Cash Register Company stated that one German patent had been worked in Berlin, and that this patent was in substantial agreement with the American patent covering the identical points of invention, and that the other three patents were not worked in the German Empire, but that their revocation would not serve any public interest. The Imperial Patent Office revoked all four patents, arguing that the one patent which was worked in Germany was not identical with the American patent cited by the defendant.

The National Cash Register Company appeared from the decision of the German Patent Office on the ground that the German Patent Office was in violation of the German patent alleged to be identical with the American patent was not worked in Germany, and still setting up the old defense that the revocation of the remaining three patents would seriously injure interest. Pending the appeal the National Cash Register Company of Berlin changed its firm name so that it read National Register-Kassen-Gesellschaft mit beschränkter Haftung, and four months later was joined by this new company to the National Cash Register Company of Dayton, Ohio, so that the patents no longer belonged to a German but to an American firm. Pending the appeal, one of the defendants refused to pay the ad valorem tax and another patent was abandoned. There remained for consideration the validity of the German patent which was worked and which was alleged to be identical with the American patent, and another German patent which was not worked. The National Cash Register Company of Dayton, Ohio, on petition was permitted to interpose as a party to the suit in place of the German company because it was the assignor of the patent rights.

The first question which came up before the court was whether an American company could be permitted to act as the defendant on appeal in view of the fact that the German company was the defendant when the action was brought before the German Patent Office. The point depended upon an interpretation of Article 260 of the German Civil Code. The Supreme Court decided that it was not a violation of that section of the Civil Code to substitute the American company for the German company as defendant. The forfeiture of the patents involved a consideration of the treaty of February 22, 1890 between the German Empire and the United States of America relating to the mutual protection of industrial property. That treaty became a German law on August 1st, 1890, and affected the patents which had been assigned to the American company. The treaty provided in substance that the American patents of Germans and the German patents of Americans were to be restricted in their respective countries to the same extent as they were in the other country. The treaty was stipulated by the opposite contracting party's laws. The German patent law compels the working of patents in the German Empire on pain of forfeiture within three years. On the other hand there is no law in the United States to compel the working of patents. The court therefore holds that the treaty exempts American citizens from the obligation of working their German patents in Germany because German citizens are not compelled to work their American patents in the United States. Hence, because the patents for which forfeiture was demanded were the property of an American company, the decision of the German Patent Office was reversed.

As a result of this very important decision, an American citizen stands in a better position before the German courts than he has heretofore. It is thus a German subject. It is usually the object of a treaty to secure equal rights to the contracting parties, but in this case it would seem that a very liberal interpretation of the treaty has been given. American citizens probably need not then originally bargain for

legation. The article is elaborately illustrated. Extracts from affidavits submitted in the case of Wright vs. Paulhan, as well as Judge Hand's decision, are given in this decision. The Farman, Blériot, and Wright type powerful passenger and freight locomotives are considered from the point of view of the Wright's standpoint. The Berlin correspondent of the *REVUE D'AERONAUTIQUE* writes a fascinating article on the number of particles produced by cathodes. It seems almost incredible that invisible particles smaller even than atoms can be counted, and yet in this article the method of so doing is described. Prof K. Svehla points out the distinguishing qualities of a gas. It could be said that the locomotives of the Wright type recently built for the Atchafalaya and Santa Fe Railway are described. W. P. Dresser's article on the artificial silk industry is continued. If you write on history come and see from the earth. He gives a table of suitable coordinates in two decimal places at intervals of four days through an arc extending from one end to the other of the lotus curve of its orbit, as well as a diagram giving the position of the earth for six days in May, also the position of the comet on twenty seven days measured from perihelion passage in days. Some novel toys are described and illustrated.

**A German Antarctic Expedition.**

A German south polar expedition has been virtually arranged by Lieut. Fitchner of the General Staff, under the auspices of the Geographical Society. Lieut. Fitchner announced at a meeting of the society that the expedition would start in October of this year if the necessary funds were forthcoming.

The plan is to send a vessel with provisions over the route followed by Lieut. Shackleton and form a depot at about the halfway point to Shackleton's winter headquarters. The regular expedition would start later from Weddell Land on the opposite side of the pole and make a dash across with the depot as objective.

Dr. Penck, chairman of the Geographical Society, announced that an anonymous donor had given \$15,000 toward defraying the cost of the expedition, and Lieut. Fitchner had promised a further \$10,000. It was hoped, he said, that they would be able to send out two vessels in order to save time.

Lieut. Fitchner is an explorer of experience. He was one of the first to reach Thibet, Tibet, and in 1903 and 1905 he explored Turkistan and Persia.

**The Life of Radium.**

An interesting and informative popular lecture upon the wonders of radium was given by Dr. Gray before the members of the Authors' Club in London by Sir William Ramsay, KCB. In describing the wonders of this element, the eminent chemist confined himself mainly to a description of his own investigations and experiments. In dealing with the Alpha particles he explained that these were really gas, and quite two-thirds of the energy of radium was transferred to the gas which it emitted, which comes off at a regular rate, and this he pointed out raised the question as to how long radium would last. He replied for over, as the amount of gas was always proportional to the amount of radium present. He likened this emission of gas to taking a slice of bread and cutting it at the same time which operation was repeated a minute, and then cut one-half in two again, and so on continually. It was not until the bread was cut into a very small piece would it take him to cut the bread entirely up. It could never do it. He would always be halving to infinity and the task would take him an eternity to perform. It was the same with radium. The amount of gas was always proportional to the amount of radium existing and was always being produced. There was, however, he remarked, one point easily overlooked. It was that the gas was not the radium. They had just measured it in his (Sir William's) laboratory and had found that it would take 1,750 years so that anyone who invested in radium would retain the gas for the greater part of his lifetime. In 1750 years the Austrian government some time ago in trusted him with about half a gramme or one fifty fifth part of an ounce of radium for his private use. He had spent about \$45,000 on that. Dr. Gray and himself performed the experiment of isolating the Alpha emanation of radium, and they isolated it in a fine glass tube, much finer than the least one-half of the rest was at the end of 1750 years compressed it and liquefied it. In the latter step it shone with a purplish light, although it was quite transparent like water. When reduced to a temperature of -80 deg. Cent. it became solid and then it shone with an extremely brilliant light. The Alpha particles are light. The quantity they used was as extremely small, being less than the point of the finest needle, yet they ascertained its boiling point, its melting point and its specific gravity.

Radium was the most concentrated form of energy known. It is a substance which goes on changing into other things to which various names have been given. These substances were named radium A, radium B, radium C and so on up to radium F. Some had a very brief existence lasting only thirty or forty minutes, and he had never seen them. It had seen radium D which would be gone in about forty days. This was a substance rather dull looking like lead and that was nearly all it could say about it. There were other substances probably like radium which Madame Curie discovered during the war. The emanation radium gave a great deal of energy as generally said to be as light but as a matter of fact radium kept itself hot, there was a great deal of heat generated. It could be said that the emanation of radium gave off about 3,500,000 units as much heat as would be given off by the exothermic bio-plex, which gave a temperature of over 2,000 deg. Cent.

What did this energy do? It went out the Alpha rays at a velocity of about 40,000 miles per second, and these particles naturally carried a great deal of energy. The Beta rays, although about as fast as the Alpha rays, did not carry so much energy owing to their enormous velocity, which exceeded that of the Alpha rays. They could decompose water and metallic substances, and in these decompositions they found elements produced which they could not imagine to exist in the substance so treated. For instance in decomposing ordinary copper sulphate they were surprised to discover lithium in what remained, and so on in the case of other compounds. The experiment five times, and the experiments were still going on.

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Date	Experiments of Hallett's Comet				
	W. H.	Derivation	Log	Log	
April 4	0.18	1.8	1.1000	0.2144	
April 4	0.18	1.8	1.1000	0.2144	
April 4	0.18	1.8	1.1000	0.2144	
April 10	0.24	2.4	1.1710	0.1287	
April 20	0.44	4.4	1.7000	0.0800	
April 24	0.50	5.0	1.7720	0.0772	
April 26	0.77	7.7	1.9110	0.0700	
May 1	1.00	10.0	2.0000	0.0672	
May 8	0.30	3.0	1.5161	0.1780	
May 10	0.35	3.5	1.5400	0.0847	
May 11	0.38	3.8	1.5610	0.0840	
May 12	0.40	4.0	1.5710	0.0840	
May 13	0.42	4.2	1.5810	0.0840	
May 14	0.44	4.4	1.5910	0.0840	
May 15	0.46	4.6	1.6010	0.0840	
May 16	0.48	4.8	1.6110	0.0840	
May 17	0.50	5.0	1.6210	0.0840	
May 18	0.52	5.2	1.6310	0.0840	
May 19	0.54	5.4	1.6410	0.0840	
May 20	0.56	5.6	1.6510	0.0840	
May 21	0.58	5.8	1.6610	0.0840	
May 22	0.60	6.0	1.6710	0.0840	
May 23	0.62	6.2	1.6810	0.0840	
May 24	0.64	6.4	1.6910	0.0840	
May 25	0.66	6.6	1.7010	0.0840	
May 26	0.68	6.8	1.7110	0.0840	
May 27	0.70	7.0	1.7210	0.0840	
May 28	0.72	7.2	1.7310	0.0840	
May 29	0.74	7.4	1.7410	0.0840	
May 30	0.76	7.6	1.7510	0.0840	
May 31	0.78	7.8	1.7610	0.0840	

Admission in Northville, No. 4710 A. C. 11.000000

**Practical Use of Small Aeroplanes.**

The practical utility of the aeroplane is the object toward which the efforts of all constructors and experimenters are directed. In furtherance of the same object, the French National Aerial League offers two prizes for small and easily managed aeroplanes. One prize, offered by M. René Armand through the agency of the League, will be awarded to the first aviator who shall succeed in starting from a selected road, bordered with trees and in landing on the same road after having made a continuous flight of one kilometer (or 1 1/2 miles) or more. The other prize, of 1,000 francs (about \$200) will be awarded to the owner of the smallest aeroplane which shall make a continuous circuit of one kilometer. The time of the aeroplanes will be estimated by multiplying together the three maximum dimensions of the machine. The competition will close July 16th, 1910. A complete copy of the rules governing the contest can be obtained by addressing La Ligue Nationale Aérienne 27 rue de Rome, Paris.

The number of bacteria contained in milk increases very rapidly from the moment of milking for a certain time, and then slowly decreases. Some bacteriologists have attributed this activity to a micro-organism power possessed by the milk due to some unidentified ingredient. Experiments have been made to isolate this hypothetical substance, which appears to remain active for a long period of time. The substance was filtered through a porcelain cylinder, and the filtrate obtained showed greater germicidal power than ordinary milk, but no conclusive results were obtained. The real explanation of the germicidal power of milk is much simpler. The activity of milk contains lactic acid and thus milk continually becomes a less favorable medium for the growth of bacteria. The bacteria also have to contend with the lactic acid, which develops very rapidly in the milk. The bacteria are victorious in the struggle for existence. It is for this reason that the lactic ferment is employed in therapeutics.

**The Current Impasse.**

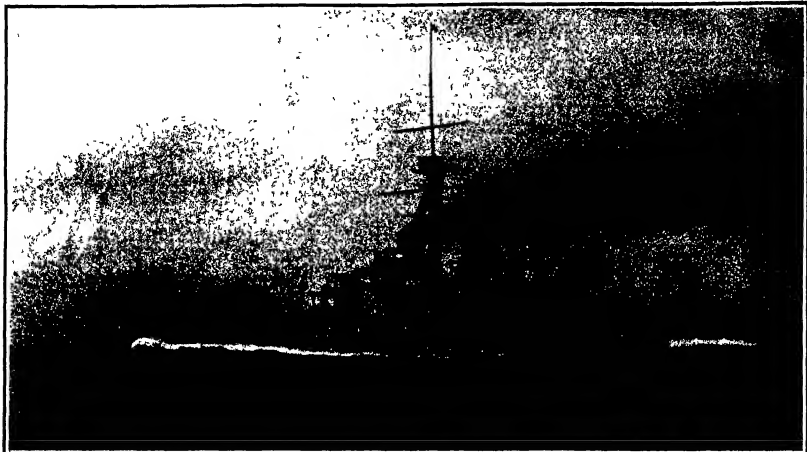
The opening article of the current *Scientific American*, No. 2170, is by E. A. Mearns, Editor of the *Department of Research in Twentieth Century*. In which he describes the instruments and methods of the ocean magnetic work of the Carnegie Institution of Wash-

**THE BRAZILIAN BATTLESHIP "MINAS GERAES"**

In the early part of this year the first of the dreadnought battleships the "Minas Geraes" about which much speculation has been rife, was handed over by the builders, Sir W. G. Armstrong, Whitworth & Co

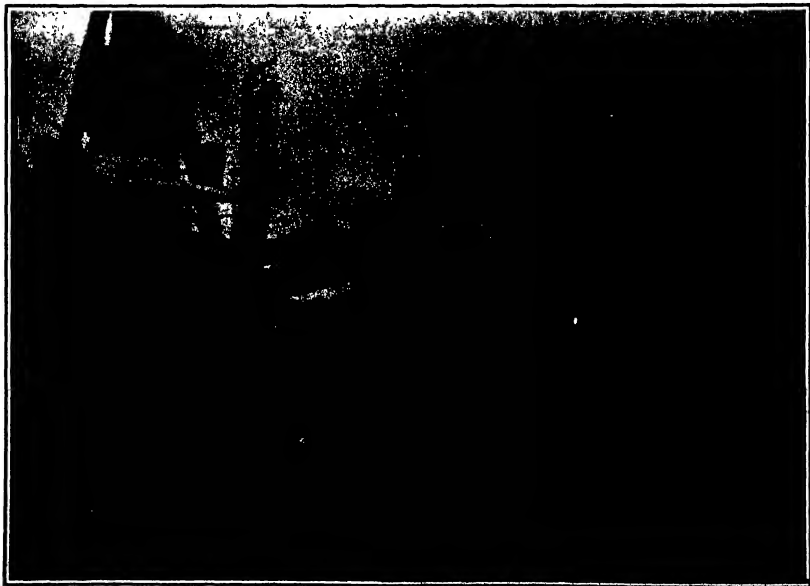
of Elswick, Newcastle-on-Tyne, to the Brazilian government thus definitely disposing of the supposition that the vessel was designed for some other power. This vessel has been the source of considerable discussion, since it represents the last word in heavy bat-

tleship design, and is at present the most powerfully armed warship afloat. Through the courtesy of Admiral Maury, the president of the Brazilian naval commission in England, appointed by the government of the South American state to supervise construction,



Length, 581 feet. Breadth, 66 feet. Normal displacement, 18,100 tons. Horse-power, 22,000. Speed, 21.4 knots. Armour: Belt, 8-inch, extending for full height of hull; turret, 8-inch; two protective decks, 14 inch and 5 inch. Armament: Twelve 12-inch 18-ton heavy guns; two 4.7-inch gun torpedoes; sixteen 3-inch.

**THE BRAZILIAN DREADNOUGHT "MINAS GERAES"**



During the gun trials of the "Minas Geraes" ten 12-inch guns were trained on the broadside and discharged simultaneously. The combined energy of the projectiles amounted to 500,000 foot-tons, or sufficient to lift the ship bodily 26 feet into the air.

**THE GREATEST BROADSIDE EVER FIRED FROM A BATTLESHIP.**

we are enabled to publish the accompanying photographs and to give the leading particulars regarding this, the latest development.

The general appearance of the vessel may be gathered from the accompanying illustration. The overall length is 545 feet, molded breadth 33 feet, molded depth 43.5 feet, displacement 19,000 tons, speed 21 knots. The propelling machinery, built by Vickers Sons & Maxim, who have the second vessel of the series completed at Barrow, is of the reciprocating four-cylinder triple-expansion type, driving twin three-bladed propellers. The cylinders have a diameter of 39 inches for the high-pressure, 63 inches for the intermediate, and 73 inches for the low-pressure, with a common stroke of 48 inches, and on the forced draft trial at 250 pounds pressure developed 27,312 indicated horse-power, giving a speed of 21 1/2 knots.

The outstanding feature of the vessel, however, is the armament. The main armor on the broadside amidships is 9 inches for a depth of 22 1/2 feet, 5 feet of which extends below the normal load waterline. The forward and aft barbettes are protected by a transverse 8-inch armor bulkhead, while forward and aft the hull is protected by 6-inch belt armor tapering to 4 inches at the extreme ends. There are two protective decks, the upper being 1 1/2 inches thick, and the waterline deck 2 inches thick. Nine-inch armor is also used for the upper strake amidships, and the 4 1/2-inch guns of the secondary armament are mounted within the citadel thus formed. In regard to offensive armament, the main battery comprises twelve 13-inch 45-caliber guns.

Four are carried in pairs in two turrets in the center line of the ship, both forward and aft, the remaining two pairs being mounted on either side amidships. In order to permit these to be trained throughout a full arc of 150 degrees, the superstructure is cut away fore and aft. It will be readily seen that the upper deck of the vessel is left clear of all obstructions, a factor which is one of the outstanding features of the design. It will be seen also that the pairs of guns forward, as well as those aft, are stepped, the uppermost pair being some 13 feet above the level of those below, so as to enable the upper to fire over the lower pair. It will be seen from this arrangement that a terrific gun fire can be concentrated on either side, for the forward and aft two pairs of guns can be trained through an arc of 150 degrees on either side of the center line of the ship, thus giving a fire from either broadside, including the pair of guns amidships of ten 13-inch guns. Moreover, owing to a pair of guns fore and aft being set at a higher elevation they have a corresponding advantage in action. As these guns fire a projectile weighing 850 pounds, this means that an aggregate discharge of 8,500 pounds can be concentrated from either broadside. In the accompanying photograph taken during the gun trials a full broadside fire is shown, and this is interesting as it is the first occasion on which ten 13-inch guns have been fired from a broadside. Similarly owing to the amidships guns on either broadside being capable of training through an arc of 150 degrees, it is possible to fire eight 13-inch guns ahead or astern.

The secondary armament comprises 4 1/2-inch guns and 3 pounders of the quick-firing type. The central superstructure of the vessel has been so designed as to carry four 4 1/2-inch weapons arranged in pairs one above the other on either side of the bridge at the forward end, with a similar disposition aft. These guns fire forward and aft parallel with the center line of the ship, but have a considerable slope of fire abeam the beam. Also six 3-pounders are similarly mounted forward and aft in the same superstructure, while two other 3-pounders are carried on the top of each of the

gun houses of the upper level pair of guns. On the main deck there are seven 4 1/2-inch guns mounted within the citadel of 8-inch armor on either side, and the arrangement is such that the guns can be trained through an arc of 50 degrees on either side of the center line transverse to the keel, so that they can be trained astern and ahead. Altogether there are twenty-two 4 1/2-inch guns included in the secondary armament. The result is that in action the vessel can pour a broad side from ten 13-inch guns firing 850-pound shells, eleven 4 1/2-inch guns firing 45-pound shells, and six guns firing 3-pounder projectiles. As all are of the latest quick-firing type, a comprehensive idea of the formidable character of the attack of this vessel may be obtained.

The gun-operating mechanism is electrically and hydraulically driven, electricity being used for training the turrets. In addition there is emergency gear for every operating. Immediately the gun is fired an air blast cleans it and the rammer is fitted with a water spray, so that in the event of any sparks remaining when the breech is opened they may be at once extinguished. The accommodation for the personnel is most adequate and commodious, especially in regard to the officers' accommodations, and in view of the hot climate in which the vessel is to be in service, special attention has been devoted to ventilation. The navigating bridge has outer wings, which are also removed when the ship is cleared for action.

The gunnery trials created immense interest, and

#### THE FIRST METAL BRIDGE IN AFGHANISTAN

The accompanying illustration represents the Dirmouth suspension bridge, the first metal bridge to be erected in Afghanistan, which was opened last year. The structure spans the Kabul River at the mouth of the famous Dirmouth Gorge, about seven miles from Jalalabad. Prior to the erection of this bridge, communication was maintained between India and the adjacent country by means of a primitive native ferryboat, or raft, composed of skins stretched taut on a framework of rough timbers. The boats were gathered by means of crude nail-made rope. A cable was stretched across the river, and when the latter was at its normal stage the raft was pulled from one bank to the other by this means. When, however, the waterway was in flood, and the turbulence and velocity of the current prevented recourse to the rope, the raft had to be rowed across the river, an operation which required considerable dexterity with the primitive oars used. The journey was somewhat dangerous under the circumstances, and the opposite bank was only gained some considerable distance downstream. Owing to the rude character of the ferryboat a capsule was by no means infrequent, and indeed several lives were lost from this cause every year.

When it was decided to erect a bridge, the site chosen for the structure was just off the old Kabul road. As the photograph shows, the gorge is extremely wild at this point, the rocky cliffs dropping straight down

into the water.

The contract was carried out under Mr. J. R. Hall, chief engineer of the British India Company, and the construction was carried out by the Messrs. Burns and Company, Limited.

The bridge has a span of 395 feet between tower centers, with a clear width between parapets of 10 feet. It is designed for pedestrian and light vehicular traffic. The inaccessible character of the site combined with the fact that the natives are unaccustomed to the tools used such a performance by unskilled native labor was available, rendered the task somewhat difficult. The abutments had to be blasted out of the solid rock, as did the roadway approach on either side. On the Jalalabad side these preparations together with the setting of the foundation bolts were completed in a matter of a few days. Work then had to be suspended for seven months, as the services of the Afghan labor was required in Kabul. Upon resuming operations, work was continued with great industry and the bridge was erected in the actual working time of five months. Considering the nature of the work, and that the native labor were quite unaccustomed with the tools used such a performance was highly creditable. A further month however was occupied in blasting out a roadway and approach to the bridge in the cliff face on the Lamsa side of the river. The bridge was opened by His Majesty the Amir of Afghanistan amid much ceremony and before a huge crowd of natives, who lined the precipitous hillsides to witness the novel spectacle.

Until a few years ago, all public coal lands were valued uniformly at a rate of \$20 or \$10 an acre, according if they lie less or more than 15 miles from a railroad. Since July 1904, the Government has been appraising its coal land according to the value of its contained coal. The present value fixed for the government coal land, based on the new valuation, is \$149.772-4/5, the value fixed for these same coal lands before the new classification was adopted was \$48.240-9/11. According to these figures, it is evident, therefore, that if these lands had been sold at the prices prevailing before July 1904, the Government would have lost the government about \$100,000,000 less than their value at the prices now fixed.



This graceful structure, recently completed, takes the place of a primitive rope ferry.

#### THE FIRST METAL BRIDGE IN AFGHANISTAN.

the representatives of several powers were present there. The trials served to dispel conclusively many apprehensions that had formerly been entertained. For instance, there was considerable discussion as to what effect would be produced upon the gun crew in the lower barbettes of the fore and aft 13-inch guns when the weapons immediately above were discharged. In the first test the crew were withdrawn from the lower gun house when the upper pair was fired. It was found, however, that the roof of the lower house offered a complete protection against the blast, and that the crew could safely stay in the lower house without experiencing the slightest ill effects of the tremendous blast some five feet above their heads. It was also considered that the principle of setting the fore and aft guns one above the other and at a distance of 36 feet center to center was objectionable, on the plea that the aiming of the upper guns would be interfered with by the flash from the guns just below, but here again practical trials dispensed any such objections. These results, by the way, corroborate certain results obtained some years ago by our own Navy Department at Indian Head, when this system of mounting guns first proposed and adopted in our "Michigan" and "South Carolina" was tested.

Cement for Agassiz—Equal parts of water of submergible and anhydrous and iron filings, mixed with good linseed oil varnish and adding enough white lead to make a solid, easily workable mass.

## BIRDS AS MECHANISMS

BY A. S. MASON.

The casual observer knows the birds as he knows the tree the stone or the sea shell—an individual object of passing interest, one of the trivial details in his everyday life. The avian bird seldom knows the birds, fox or the snake, by the student they wear so to speak. If somewhat alert, he may even recognize birds by flight and song. Even the more profound ornithologist, however, is content with a character—merely bill, length of wing and tail, number of feathers in each, etc. It is of necessity a specialist paying particular attention to the anatomy of the bird, the study of plumage, ornithological ontogeny or some one of the subdivisions of the general study of birds, few individuals among any of the classes of students mentioned sufficiently appreciate the bird as a mechanism designed to play a certain part, every number like every detail of some complicated and perfect machine contributing toward perfecting the whole for its requirements.

Considering the bird from this standpoint and analyzing the parts with a view to their functions it seems natural to commence with the bill because it is the anterior extremity and because of the importance of its uses. This one feature of a bird's mechanism merits treatment in an article especially devoted to it and has, in fact, received such treatment. It can be briefly reviewed only here. The bill not only performs the functions of a mouth in birds, but also serves as a hand, having seen at all on the posterior limbs, and only unsatisfactory substitutes on the anterior ones. Birds must needs use the bill largely in lieu of a hand, and do so to a very considerable degree.

As has been shown, the bill largely conforms to the requirements of the more important functions that it must perform, and exhibits a very wide range of variety in size and shape. It is used for cutting, tearing, and chewing food of various sorts, and for seizing, spearing, or crushing prey. It is also used to dress the plumage, and by some species, such as parrots, to assist in climbing.

Birds' skulls, having a low diverse range of functions than the bills, show a correspondingly smaller degree of differentiation, but they do vary to some extent according to the habits and particularly according to the orders. In the lower types, such as arboreal and aquatic, and most of the sea birds, the brain cavity is relatively small, but proportionately larger in the higher types, such as the thrushes. Including the robin.

The vertebral portion of the skeleton plainly indicates the birds' descent from ancestral stock common with that of reptiles. Modern birds bring no longer provided with reptile-like tails, as was the case with the earliest types (the archosaurs had twenty caudal vertebrae the bony structure of a long lizard like tail, each vertebra supporting a long feather on either side) the number of caudal vertebrae has become reduced to usually nine and these are short and with little apparent function, other than to support the feathers of the tail fan. Modern birds bring no longer provided with reptile-like tails, as was the case with the earliest types (the archosaurs had twenty caudal vertebrae the bony structure of a long lizard like tail, each vertebra supporting a long feather on either side) the number of caudal vertebrae has become reduced to usually nine and these are short and with little apparent function, other than to support the feathers of the tail fan.

The bony structure of the wings is an adaptation of the bones of fore limbs to the requirements of flight. In evolutionary history this adaptation was principally accomplished by the fused-like progressors of birds and the modifications since then are not remarkable. The avian arm bone the humerus and the secondary ones the ulna and radius are not very different from the corresponding bones in mammals. In the hand, however, the first and fifth fingers have disappeared, the index and third digits are small and scarcely functional, while the middle finger is greatly developed and furnishes the real bony support for the tip of the wing.

Wings for the great majority of birds are solely organs of flight, in a few species such as the ostrich they are rudimentary and functionless serving at best only to preserve symmetry. In such species as penguins, however, while useless for flight, they are valuable as flippers or paddles, assisting progress through the water. In a very few cases they are used to assist the bird in climbing usually largely while immature, as in the hoatzin of South America.

Next to the bills and wings the feet of birds are perhaps of the greatest functional importance. Feet and legs vary greatly, according to the usage for which they are designed. In the ostrich, which must surely resemble in its mode of life some wild horse, the development of feet and legs is strikingly like that of the feet and legs of such animals. Birds like

the birds than the skeletal structure. The more important muscles are peculiarly designed to render the greatest efficiency. The powerful muscles that operate the wings have their anchorage on the keel of the breastbone, and the latter is particularly deeply developed in birds of most powerful flight. This is true alike of the most powerful bird, but its immense size alone maintains spread for hours in sailing, and of the humming bird with its relatively small wings, driven at lightning speed to keep the bird poised before a flower.

In all of the perching or perching birds, the muscle and tendon arrangement of feet and legs is such that the weight of the body resting on and contracting the legs draws the main body over the main joint, and draws up on the ends of the toes, locking their grip on the perch. The same principle drives the talons of the hawks and owls into their prey.

Tongues in birds are also highly functional. In woodpeckers they are practically barbed spears, and the extreme protrusion that they are subject to is provided for by roots that extend around the back of the head and close up to the eye-sockets. In the humming bird the tongue is a pump for obtaining the nectar from flowers, in some species it is brush-like, to facilitate handling the food, and in certain fish-eating species the upper surface of the tongue is covered with points inclined backward, to facilitate swallowing the slippery prey.

The eyes of birds, designed to see at night, are wonderful structures. Only a small portion of the entire eye-ball is visible. Each socket occupies nearly a third of the total skull space. The visible eye-ball is mounted on a thin bone frame, somewhat resembling a lamp-shade in shape, a structure differing radically from the type of bird's eye.

The feather covering of birds is especially adapted to their requirements. It is light offering the least weight to be carried in flight, and a poor conductor of heat and cold, affording the bird the best protection in the sudden temperature changes to which it is subjected. In birds like the penguins it is more like the hair of seals than normal feathers and is thoroughly waterproof. The feathers of ducks and water fowl generally are also practically waterproof. The power of flight is quite dependent on the feathers, both of wing and tail which in action are spread to give the greatest supporting area for the air pressure to act upon.

As a complete mechanism, so perfectly do all its parts contribute to an absolutely smooth-working whole, so the bird, that the very wonder of this intricate machine passes unnoticed as a common-place incident.

Metal filament lamps generally are supposed to be of a pretty frail nature, so that the slightest touch breaks them. This idea is counteracted by an account given in the Electrical Engineer of a collision between a Pennsylvania eastbound passenger train and an empty engine just outside Jersey City on the morning of November 8th. This accident resulted in comparatively few injuries to the passengers, due to the fact that the strong frame of the passenger cars resisted crushing. The damage to engines and cars, however was considerable. One of the steel passenger coaches jumped the track and turned over on a collision, landing in the steel plates about 18 inches. Included in the lighting equipment of this car were nine tungsten lamps, and it is interesting to note that, after the wreck these lamps were found to be in perfect condition.



1. The bill of a penguin, 2. the sparrow's bill, 3. hawk's bill, 4. woodpecker's bill, 5. crow's bill, 6. a bird's foot, 7. a bird's foot, 8. a bird's foot, 9. a bird's foot, 10. a bird's foot, 11. a bird's foot, 12. a bird's foot, 13. a bird's foot, 14. a bird's foot, 15. a bird's foot, 16. a bird's foot, 17. a bird's foot, 18. a bird's foot, 19. a bird's foot, 20. a bird's foot, 21. a bird's foot, 22. a bird's foot, 23. a bird's foot, 24. a bird's foot.

## THE BIRD AS A MECHANISM

the kingfisher and humming bird whose feet are used solely for perching have abnormally underdeveloped, small, and weak looking feet and legs. In the birds of prey the feet are practically grasping hooks, designed to secure the firmest hold of the victims, the legs are heavy and strong. Birds like the herons, the storks, and cranes, who spend much time wading, have very long legs and long, slender toes, which, spreading over a wider surface, give a support analogous to that afforded by snowshoes. This feature is more strikingly illustrated in birds like the rails, that travel about on the yielding aquatic growth, and find its highest development in the penguins, tropical and sub-tropical birds of the rail family. Woodpeckers, creepers, and nuthatches, birds that cling a great deal to perpendicular surfaces, have very sharp claws and feet adapted to such requirements. Birds that swim a great deal have the feet webbed with a membrane extending between the toes, making very efficient paddles.

The flesh of birds is no less efficiently designed and disposed toward the fulfilling of the requirements of

# The Home Laboratory

## EXPERIMENTS IN CRYSTALLIZATION

BY J. J. JARVIS

The making of crystals of various kinds outside a chemical works or chemical laboratory is not often practised, because it is commonly considered that the subject is a very difficult one or that it requires a complete knowledge of chemistry. Such, however, is a mistaken idea from either standpoint. Crystals of extraordinary beauty both in geometrical form and brilliancy of color can be produced by any person determined to make the undertaking successful.

The accompanying illustration shows a group of pyramidal crystalline structures that have been formed in the natural colors.

The red is made of bichromate of potash, the white of common alum, and the blue of sulphate of copper. Many salts can be employed, and are very cheap, and after the crystals have been formed the solution left over can often be used. The geometrical forms of the crystals can be observed during their formation, and it is interesting to watch how they grow as the liquid deposits the excess of salt. When finished, they can be dried and preserved under a glass covering like was flowers so as to preserve them for ornament and for educational purposes.

To produce results as illustrated make a pyramid out of three pieces of wool five, ten, and four, and a quarter of an inch square. Wind each with with of ten turns from end to end. Laid thus three strips will be at the apex of the pyramid and thus for the base, make a little triangle of the same sized strips each piece being two and a half inch long. Cement these firmly at the corners. When the wax is dry, then cover every part neatly with a winding of cotton twine. Now detach the free ends of the three longer pieces, and fasten them to the base with sealing wax after which carefully and slowly wind the cotton twine with twine. For a fine pyramidal block of white transparent alum crystals prepare a small quantity of concentrated alum solution made by adding powdered alum to a pint of boiling water until no more will dissolve. Pour the cotton twine covered tripod or pyramid into this solution, let it soak for a minute, then stand it in a glass of water. When cold it will be coated all over with very fine crystals of alum. Wash the piece with water to build up the dual crystallization. Examine the minute crystals with a magnifying glass, when it will be seen that the face of each crystal is triangular in form, the corners being cut off. No matter how small or how large the crystal may be, it always assumes the same geometrical form, for every salt crystallizes in a form according to its nature.

Prepare a two-gallon slowware crock and a one-gallon glass battery jar. The battery jar should be eight inches high and six inches in diameter. Pour seven pints of boiling water into the slowware crock. Add therein about five pounds of powdered alum, a few ounces at a time, stirring the solution with a stick until well with a stirrer stir of glass. As soon as the hot water will dissolve no more alum it is then saturated and may be poured into the glass battery jar, which has been previously warmed, straining the solution of alum by tying a three-fold piece of cheese cloth over the top of the jar. Now place in the battery jar a circular piece of lid about 1/2 inch deep, such as the lid of a paste jar. Set upon this lid a piece of glass four and a half inches square and upon the glass the slightly crystallized pyramid completely immersed. Let the solution and weighted down with a large alum crystal or a heavy glass stopper. A small crystal of alum may also be placed upon the top of the pyramid.

All must now be left to cool gradually. Under no condition must the vessel be disturbed, because this would cause the alum to be thrown down. In a few minutes in very fine crystals of common alum. At the end of twenty-four hours, the whole of the pyramid will be covered with beautifully formed crystals. At the end of forty-eight hours, the pyramid may be removed, and the alum solution made hot once more, adding more ground alum to saturate the solution; pour this solution again into the battery jar and immerse the pyramid with the sheet glass base, allow this to

stand for a week, when it will be found to have become a mass of beautiful crystals, clustering into one solid mass. The pyramid must now be removed (the glass plate also by a slight tap) a pint of clear cold water poured over it, then stood upon folded blotting paper to drain changing the blotting paper twice daily for a week to also days, when it will be found that the crystals will become almost transparent. The pyramid being complete it may now be covered with a suitable glass dome and it will form a unique and instructive ornament. Several notes should be made from various salts, in various colors. All of them can be grown out in precisely the same manner as described for alum.

The following salts are not expensive and will give the various colors stated. They will not become untuned upon exposure to the atmosphere. For white, common alum and lake sugar, red potassium bichromate, yellow, yellow prussiate of potash, dark green, double sulphate of nickel and ammonia light green, chlorides of nickel.

There are very many other salts that will give a



RED, WHITE, AND BLUE PYRAMIDAL CLUSTERS OF CRYSTALS.

great variety of colors the majority of them being deliquescent becoming moist and melting upon exposure to the atmosphere; but those enumerated here will be permanent under all ordinary conditions.

## SIMPLE METHOD OF PRODUCING THE ZEEMAN EFFECT

BY W. A. LAM

The world was started when a few years ago, Prof. Zeeman announced that if pieces of sodium were burned between the poles of a powerful electro-magnet the spectrum would show the D line much broadened while the emitting current was turned on, and that the original aspect of the line would be retained as soon as the current ceased.

The first account of the much-discussed theory of H. A. Lorentz who assumed that the hitherto homogeneous and indistinguishable atom of the chemical was as a matter of fact heterogeneous and composed of minute particles or vortices in the ether, each having a definite mass and possessing all the properties of negative electricity. These particles, or vortices, which are now called "electrons" are conceived as vibrating about the common center of gravity of the atom and further that light was due to transverse vibrations in the ether generated by these rapidly moving electrons. If, around Lorentz, the atom be made up of such particles or vortices, the rate of vibration would be altered by the lines of force in a magnetic field and we should be able to predict their behavior with accuracy. Going back to two swinging pendulums for analogy, he pointed out that any mo-

tion and component number 3, in which they move against the hands of the clock. Now suppose we look at the vapor of sodium in a magnetic field and along the lines of force. Coming from the lens at right angles, charged, and the lines of force run parallel toward you what will happen? You cannot see any effect of component number 1, since the electrons in that component are moving in the same direction as the lines of force. But with components numbers 2 and 3 the conditions are very different from the electrons are revolving in circular orbits and in a plane at right angles to the line of sight, and since those which move with the hands of a watch are retarded, and those against the hands of a watch are accelerated, the single line D in the spectroscopic view would split into two, as in Prof. Zeeman's case, where the spectroscopic line of small clear blue power only a broadening of line would be observed. This then, was the experiment which started the scientific world, started it because one of the fundamental principles of science was apparently overthrow—the homogeneity of the atom of the chemist.

Notwithstanding its value and significance, the experiment is rarely understood because of the ponderous and costly apparatus necessary to produce the deviation of the spectral lines. Powerful gratings and magnets both exceedingly expensive have up to the present time been used in the demonstration. The writer however has a very efficient piece of apparatus costing less than \$20 which shows the phenomenon admirably. No claim to originality is made save in the matter of its arrangement which is in simple as it is well within the grasp of any intelligent observer of the powerful spectroscopic reader will observe in the accompanying photograph a little interferometer attached to the spectroscopic. This is a modification of Fabry and Perot's interferometer is due to the inventive genius and the exquisite mechanical ingenuity of Prof. Plund of Johns Hopkins University. And instead of the huge magnet used by Zeeman one weighing only a few pounds is used. It is four more than simple. The photograph shows a piece of board six inches long to which is attached a lens of three inches focus, and a Nicol prism which can be revolved in its frame and for rotation is held by the telescope and of a spring clip for holding the quarter wave plate. This apparatus is simplicity itself in always in adjustment and can be rapidly shifted to view the phenomena shown along the line of sight and at right angles to it.

Instead of burning sodium let us use a tube containing helium gas, and place the apparatus so that we may view the light emitted by the source of three and through the lens drilled in the side piece of the magnet as seen in Fig. 1. Examine the glowing tube before the magnet is energized and you will see several concentric yellow rings in the field of the telescope.

Fix your attention upon any one of the rings which is the equivalent of the yellow line that would be seen in an ordinary spectroscopic. Turn the current into the magnet, and instantly the yellow ring splits into two. Revolve the Nicol but you cannot extinguish the rings because just as Lorentz predicted they are circularly polarized. Now introduce a quarter wave plate in the optical path the effect of which is to produce a retardation of one-half wave length. The light is now plane polarized and can be extinguished by the Nicol. This is a beautiful confirmation of Lorentz's theory. So much for components numbers 2 and 3, but component number 1 can not be seen when the electrons are moving parallel to the lines of force. Now take out the Nicol and move the quarter wave plate into the line of sight so as to view the light at right angles to the lines of force (Fig. 2). Turn on the current and one yellow ring is observed to break up into three. Let us analyze them bearing in mind what Lorentz said viz. That one of these lines of component number 1 was polarized lying in a horizontal plane, and that the other two, components numbers 2 and 3, were polarized in a vertical plane vertical because in this position we are looking at the edge of these circular orbits. The third line of view is as if the particles were actually moving vertically. Now introduce the Nicol with its short diagonal vertical, two rings appear, and with the short diagonal horizontal one ring only is observed. A beautiful confirmation of the cleverness of Lorentz's theory is now credited to the mind of man.

In the whole realm of physics there is nothing more

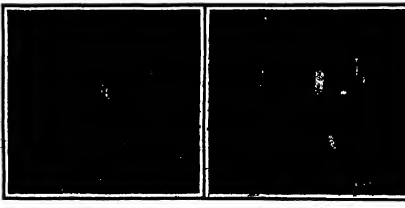


Fig. 1.—Looking in the direction of the magnetic lines.

Fig. 2.—Looking at right angles to the magnetic lines.

## APPARATUS FOR PRODUCING THE ZEEMAN EFFECT

tion to which the electron is subject could be resolved into three components one in straight lines parallel to the lines of magnetic force, and the other two at right angles to them, but since these last two can be further resolved into two circular motions one to the right and one to the left) around the axis parallel to the lines of force, we can say that the motion which the electrons are capable of making may be divided into component number 1 in which the electrons are moving parallel to the lines of force; component number 2, in which they move with the hands of the clock,

striking, more significant, and the effect which it is destined to exercise upon the future of science is simply incalculable.

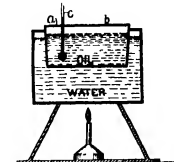
#### SOME SIMPLE TESTS FOR OIL.

BY RALPH P. CLARKSON.

\* There are several tests which anyone can apply without the use of special apparatus, and let something about the grade of lubricating oil he is testing.

THIS PLANT TEST.

Place a small amount of the oil to be tested in a



APPARATUS FOR DETERMINING THE FLASHING POINT OF OIL.

pan as indicated at *a* in the accompanying engraving, and heat by means of the lamp beneath. As the oil heats apply a match at *b*. After a time a flash is seen when the match is applied, but it disappears as rapidly as it came. This shows that enough vapor had been produced to mix with the air and form an explosive mixture. The temperature, given by thermometer *c*, at which this occurs, is called the flashing point. At some higher temperature if a match is applied, the oil takes fire. This latter temperature is known as the burning point, and may be a considerable number of degrees above the flashing point.

TO DETECT THE PRESENCE OF ALKALI.

Dissolve a small amount of sodium carbonate in an equal volume of water. Place it, together with the oil to be tested, in a flask or beaker and shake thoroughly. The quantity of precipitate will be a measure of the amount of acid present.

TO DETECT THE PRESENCE OF GREASE.

Drop a small amount of the oil on white or very light-colored blotting paper. The oil will be absorbed, and the grit will be visible as small black specks on the blotter.

TO FIND THE TEMPERATURE AT WHICH THE OIL CONGELS.

Put 16 parts of Glauber salts into a beaker. Place in this a bottle containing a sample of the oil. Place over the salt a mixture of 5 parts hydrochloric acid and 5 parts of cold water. The thermometer is reduced slowly, and can be observed from time to time as the oil thickens. Any freezing mixture or even ice can be used in place of the above.

#### THE IONIZATION OF AIR.

SOME SIMPLE EXPERIMENTS.

The terms ions and electrons have now become familiar in the explanation of electrical phenomena. Most of the investigations upon which they are based have ever have been made in view, and consequently they are but little understood, except by those scientists

who have devoted their energies to their special study. There are however many simple experiments, mostly due to Right, which can be made in air at the ordinary pressure, and which form a useful introduction to the study of ionization. The accompanying illustrations represent some of these typical simple experiments performed by Mr. C. J. Watson of Birmingham, which aroused considerable interest at a recent scientific conference in that city, and through his courtesy we are able to explain how they were carried out and how they may be repeated by any interested reader.

It is well known that if a pointed wire be connected to one pole of an influence electric machine, and the other pole is earthed, a discharge of electricity will be obtained. The proof of electric discharge may be easily verified by means of a lighted candle and a gold-leaf electroscope. If the former is placed on the cap of the latter, the electroscope, even if disposed several yards from the machine, will collect continuously the electricity discharged from the machine. Similarly, if the action is carried out in the dark, a small stream of purple light may be seen, which although scarcely visible, will exercise a pronounced sensitive influence upon an exposed photographic plate. Another method in which this discharge may be ascertained is to place a condenser, comprising a piece of glass 1/16 inch thick coated on both sides with tinfoil to within 1/4 inch of its edge, opposite the point of the wire. Then connect the two opposite coatings of tinfoil with a strip of the same material, which has a fine cut in it. When the reverse side of the condenser is connected to earth, there will be a distinct spark jumping across the narrow gap.

If this discharge point then be immersed in a metal box fitted with an opening which is covered with perforated zinc, so that the electrified air is forced through the perforations, if the box is earthed it will be found that the air which is thus expelled is totally deprived of electric charge. It thus appears that the



Fig. 1.—Interposing a non-conductor in the path of the ions.

electric charge is carried by the particles of air generally, but by a smaller number of what for the present are generally described as ions.

Several simple experiments may be carried out to ascertain the paths pursued by these ions. For instance, take a sheet of ebonite the reverse side of which is coated with tinfoil and earthed, and place it a foot distant from the discharge point. It is advisable to pass the sheet over a gas flame for a few seconds before each experiment, so that any electricity present in the sheet may be eliminated. When the discharge from the electric machine is carried out for about one second, the sheet will be charged sufficiently. No visible effect of this occurrence will be

observable; but if the sheet is sprinkled with a mixture of powdered red lead and sulphur, and the same experiment is repeated with an obstacle of non-conducting material interposed between the discharge point and the sheet, such as a cross, an image of that object will be produced upon the plate. If negative electricity has been discharged from the electrical point, then the sulphur will collect on those parts

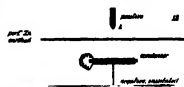


Fig. 2.—Forcing a discharge through a zinc sheet.

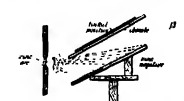


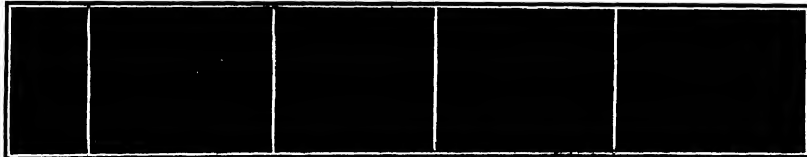
Fig. 3.—Effect of ultra-violet rays on zinc.

immediately beneath the object, while the red lead will adhere to those parts charged negatively by the unimpeded discharge on the surrounding areas. The drawing, Fig. 1, shows how the experiment is carried out, while the photograph, Fig. 2, gives the result of the interposition of the cross in the path pursued by the ions.

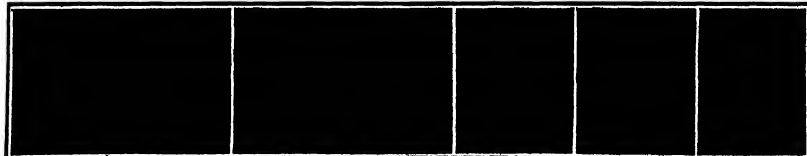
The image of the object is usually enlarged, but this factor is influenced to some extent by the length of time of the electric discharge. A preferable method is to take a sheet of celluloid, as shown in Fig. 4, perforated with holes at regular distances. Then when the image of these holes is obtained, as shown in Fig. 4, the distances between their centers can be measured. When the distance of the ebonite sheet is varied (the distance of the celluloid sheet from the electric pole being kept constant) it will be found that the size of the image grows with the distance, but not proportionately. The electrified particles or ions travel along the lines of electric force, and consequently generally in curved lines. This has been proved by using, in stead of a point, a long thin wire held parallel to the interposed sheet of celluloid when the lines of force are circular arcs passing through the wire, and striking the ebonite perpendicularly to its surface.

It will also be found that the streams of ions mutually repel each other, so that if the electrified point is very near to the celluloid, the individual images of the holes will be found to have enlarged themselves at the expense of the intervening spaces and will even be observed to have assumed almost a square form, as shown in Fig. 5. This is of course analogous to what is observed with the cathode rays of highly exhausted tubes. A similar repulsion is also manifested when an insulated metal object is used as the interposed object. This is illustrated in Fig. 6 which represents the effect produced by a piece of brass tubing on the end of an ebonite rod, both being of the same diameter.

(Continued on page 249.)



Figs. 6 to 8.—Shadow effects produced by interposing non-conductors in a stream of electrified particles.



Figs. 9 to 11.—The effect of an air blast on the discharge, and of forcing a discharge through perforated zinc.

THE IONIZATION OF AIR.—SOME SIMPLE EXPERIMENTS.







**Star Lathes**  
FOR THE ACCURATE WORK  
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FOR THE LATHES  
FOR THE LATHES  
FOR THE LATHES

**Engine and Foot Lathes**  
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SUPPLIES. WE WORKSHOPS. WE  
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SUPPLIES. WE WORKSHOPS. WE

**Foot and Power Lathes**  
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**Incorporate**  
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### NEW AIRPLANE

(Continued from page 236)

weight of the machine complete is about 140 pounds. The thrust obtained from the propeller at 1,200 revolutions is in the neighborhood of 500 pounds. The double surface horizontal rudder is carried upon hollow inclined spars some 12 in. in advance of the main surface, and the slugs surface tail is similarly mounted at the rear. The machine is carried upon a central runner having two smaller slides on each side. There is also a slide at each end of the lower plane.

The novel features of this machine are the foot control of the horizontal rudder, and the system of triangular vertical fins on the top of the upper plane for the purpose of maintaining the transverse stability automatically. The aileron sits upon a small seal located in front of the lower plane and slides to front to allow the rudder to turn in front to vertical stroke countering the pull that holds the horizontal rudder. Thus the inclined rudder can be readily seen in the photograph as well as the pedals for the feet of the aviator which operate the horizontal rudder. The vertical rudder is worked by a small lever held in the aviator's right hand, and the spark and throttle control of the motor is also conveniently placed.

The theory upon which the transverse (each of which is less than 2 square feet of surface) operate in order to maintain the transverse stability of the machine, is as follows. When the machine tips to one side it has a tendency to slide down toward the ground and vice versa, but as the weight is placed very low, and as the fins offer resistance to side motion the upper part of the machine is retarded, while the lower part swings over like a pendulum, and the machine remains an even keel.

In the first trial the surface (which are of special machine-cut silk) were very loose owing to fog and dampness, and once the machine was in the air it was necessary for the aviator to tilt well over to the left side, in order to counterbalance a difference in lifting power of the two sides of the machine. The bipiano rose readily after a run of about 35 feet. The machine is said to have lifted at a speed of about 22 miles per hour. The horizontal rudder was turned 100° and the machine shot up to a height of 40 feet at an angle of nearly 75 degrees. Mr. Herring attempted to make a turn after flying some 100 feet, and the machine turned successfully tipping inward at an angle of about 20 degrees from the horizontal and making a 40 degree turn. He then cut off the spark and descended. In alighting the seat was split and a runner and one of the inclined rods was broken. According to the inventor, the machine rose in the air with the aviator weighing 170 pounds with a thrust of 140 pounds, and he believes that a thrust of 80 to 95 pounds is sufficient to fly it. The throttle was not fully opened, and the motor, he thinks developed not more than 9 horse power when the machine was in flight.

This bipiano is the first airplane to fly in New England but it is primarily noteworthy because of the new method of automatic stability which apparently seems to work fairly well. Mr. Herring has replaced the vertical surfaces of the Voisin bipiano (which connect the main planes at the ends and at various points in between) by the six small triangular fins shown. If these small fins, placed above the upper plane, answer the purpose as well as do the partitions in the Voisin machine, they can readily be made that they offer much less resistance and skin friction to the air, and should make a faster machine. They form a means of automatic stability which is a decided improvement over wingtips or movable wing tips.

(Continued on page 247)

## GRABOWSKY POWER WAGONS ARE PROVED MONEY EARNERS

### For the Delivery of Merchandise

The value of the Grabowsky Power Wagon to merchants who wish to reduce delivery expenses is well demonstrated by the fact that it has been used by many of the leading stores in nearly every great business center. The Grabowsky Power Wagon is a motor vehicle of the type which is most economical and most reliable. It is built for the delivery of merchandise, and is designed to carry a load of 1,000 pounds. It is built for the delivery of merchandise, and is designed to carry a load of 1,000 pounds.

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### FOR Passenger Traffic

There is one of the best means of getting to and from the city center, and it is the Grabowsky Power Wagon. It is built for the delivery of merchandise, and is designed to carry a load of 1,000 pounds.

It is built for the delivery of merchandise, and is designed to carry a load of 1,000 pounds. It is built for the delivery of merchandise, and is designed to carry a load of 1,000 pounds.



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## AMERICAN HOMES AND GARDENS

### CONTENTS FOR MARCH, 1918

REVENTIN	83
THE IMPROVED ENTICKER IN THE IMPORTANT FEATURE OF THE HOUSE	83
THE HOME OF ARTHUR C. STEINHAUS, Esq., Ashbury Park, N. J.	83
By <i>Harvey Jones</i>	83
FURNISHING THE APARTMENT—III The Dining Room	89
By <i>Lillian Hamilton French</i>	89
CALIFORNIA BINGALOWS—Costing from One Thousand Dollars Up	92
words	92
AMERICAN HOMES AND GARDENS THE GARDEN COMPETITION—The Fourth Prize Garden	95
Won by Mrs. Anna H. Condit, of IOWA Falls, N. J.	95
By <i>Edith Jenkins</i>	95
THE HOME OF BETTY WASHINGTON	100
of the Howard Family	100
By <i>Kate Greenleaf Locke</i>	101
WATER GARDENS OF CALIFORNIA	101
By <i>Charles Downing Lay</i>	101
TRIMMING STREET AND LAWN TREES	107
By <i>F. P. Powell</i>	107
THE RESIDENCE OF WALTER D. ROWLES, Montclair, N. J.	108
By <i>Robert Prescott</i>	108
A HOUSE BUILT FOR MR. J. A. GARRETT, at Brookville, N. Y.	110
By <i>Paul Thurston</i>	110
A HOUSE BUILT FOR MR. E. L. CLIFFORD, Wilmette, Ill.	111
By <i>Henry Hawley</i>	111
INTERIOR DECORATION OF THE HOME—Wall Papers	114
By <i>Alva Kellogg</i>	114
THE HOME OF A. F. MORRIS, Esq., Montclair, N. J.	118
By <i>Francis Picard</i>	118
GARDEN NOTES—Fifteen Good Lilies	117
By <i>Charles Downing Lay</i>	117
OPERA AIR ORCHARD HIASING	116
By <i>W. Frank McCreary</i>	116
A COMMERCIAL FORCING BED AND STORAGE PIT	117
By <i>Richard Maxwell Whelan</i>	117
CORRESPONDENCE	120
Garden Competition Announcement for 1918	120

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The Relation of the Automobile Movement to the Sportsman

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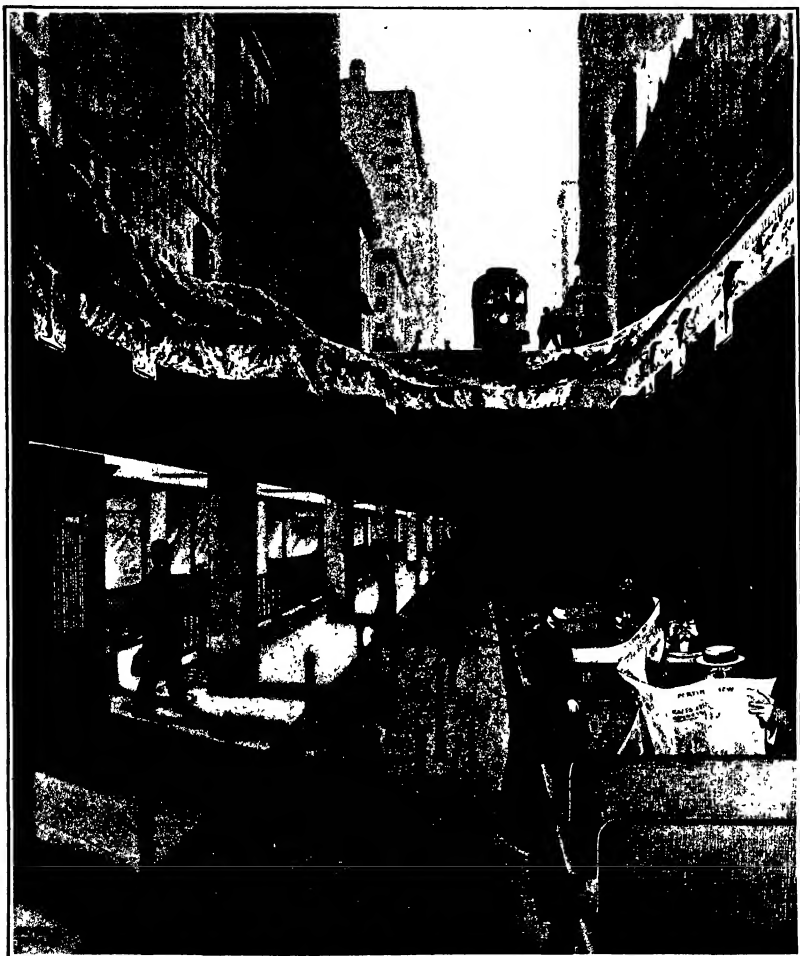
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A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS

Vol. 42, No. 12.  
PUBLISHED WEEKLY

NEW YORK, MARCH 26, 1910

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The method of transportation by moving platform shown above can carry, according to the Public Service Commission, 75,500 people per hour at 12 miles per hour. Up to distances of 4 miles this is as fast as travel by the present combined express and local service. The express trains can carry 36,000 and the local trains 22,500 per hour. The successive platforms move at 2, 6, 8, and 12 miles per hour.

RAPID TRANSIT BY BELT CONVEYOR.—(See page 257.)



# AERONAUTICS.

Mr. Ador, the Frenchman said, to have down about 1,000 feet in 1897 with his steam-propelled monoplane, the "Avion," has recently been decorated with the red ribbon of the Legion of Honor. His machine is said to have embodied the wing-warping principle since patented by the Wrights.

Proceedings have been begun in France to invalidate the Wright patent No. 342,118, of March 24, 1904, on the ground that the patent was not worked in France within three years, as must be done according to the statute. In searching for antipatents the French lawyers have discovered the English patent No. 293 of March 18, 1868, in which is said to have embodied the wing-warping principle since patented by the Wrights.

The second annual combined aeronautic and motor boat show opened in Olympia, London (England) on March 11th. Besides numerous small models, forty to fifty aeroplanes and balloons were shown. In addition to the regular display of models of Wright, Blériot, Farman and Santos Dumont, a number of British built duplicates were shown by walk-down firms, as the Humber Company, for example. In addition to these there were a number of new aeroplane built by English inventors. Interest in aviation is very strong in England at present, and several big aviation meets are planned for the coming summer.

In preparing for a re-hearing of his case on the 19th inst., Udon Curtiss has experimented to see how much resistance can be interposed at the ends of the planes of his biplane without causing it to swing. He used small vertical fins 1/2 inch in size, and found that these could be set at right angles to the line of flight for a few seconds without causing the aeroplane to swerve from a straight path and without moving the vertical rudder. As the resistance of the balancing planes which Curtiss uses is far less than is obtained in the manner just described, there can be no turning tendency produced by them, and hence no use of the vertical rudder is required to swing them. Mr. Curtiss has also flown with the vertical rudder tied and with it loose, showing that a movement of this rudder is not required. We also learn that the Autogiro, which has been flown with the vertical rudder left off. With these practical demonstrations of flight without the use of the Wrights' patented combination, there seems to be little doubt that any infringement suits they may institute will be successfully repelled.

On Saturday March 12th, Aviator Louis Paulhan made only a short straight line flight of 50 to 600 yds. at the Jamaica race track. The strong wind of 25 miles an hour velocity, and the few spectators were the principal reasons. On Sunday, however, several thousand people journeyed to the track, many of them in automobiles, and despite a wind nearly as strong as that of the day before they were not disappointed. About 4 1/2 P. M. Paulhan started against the wind, which was blowing directly across the track. His machine rose after a run of some 75 feet and traveled diagonally across the track while ascending constantly at an angle of 15 to 20 degrees. It rose to a height of 300 feet above the trees on the opposite side of the track, then, turning around, it sped back with the wind, passed over the grand stand and, making a wide loop, descended suddenly to earth at the very point at which it started 5 minutes before. Paulhan's was the most thrilling exhibition of flight ever seen near New York, and it is unfortunate that a dispute with his manager has stopped any further demonstrations.

On March 1st and 2nd Mr. Henry Farman made some record flights with passengers with a new biplane. His machine was originally built for the Rheims meeting last year, but was altered for this owing to an accident. Despite its small size and surface, it showed excellent lifting power and stability. The spread of the upper plane is 34 feet, while the lower plane is 12 or 14 feet less. The machine has a large section cut away in the center to accommodate the propeller. Movable flaps are fitted to the back edges of extensions of the upper plane only, and the tail consists of but a single horizontal surface, instead of the two halves of the vertical rudder. The machine is mounted upon combined runners and skids and fitted with a 60 H. P. Gnomon revolving cylinder motor. On the 1st inst. Mr. Farman made a flight of over 14 minutes with Mrs. Farman and having a large crowd beating his three-person record of 10 3/4 made at Betheny on August 28th, 1909. The following day he made a flight with two passengers and remained aloft 43 minutes, or more than three times as long as the day before. On account of its reduced surface, Farman's biplane must have lifted over 3 pounds per square foot, which is a high figure for a biplane.

# ELECTRICITY.

In September of last year the Boston and Maine Railroad established a telephone train dispatching system on the line between Boston and Portland, Me. This system proved so satisfactory that the railroad is now about to equip two new divisions with telephones. One of the divisions consists of a 50-mile line, from Concord to Woodville, N. H., and the other of a 70-mile line, from Concord to White River Junction, Vt.

In a lecture before the Engineering Society at Birmingham, Sir Oliver Lodge discussed the question of protection from lightning. He stated that the problem consisted in finding the best method of dissipating the enormous energy of the flash, but that it was not wise to get rid of the energy too quickly. A thin iron wire is considered the best lightning conductor from the electrical point of view, but it is almost impossible to protect a building from lightning unless it is completely enveloped in a metal cage. It is by no means true that a building is safe provided with a conductor reaching up to the tallest part of the building.

Experiments made with ultra-violet light appear to show that it is more effective for sterilizing liquids than ozone. The ultra-violet light is produced by means of mercury vapor lamps quartz tubes being sealed at both ends by glass electrodes which do not contact with the water to be purified. A French investigator, M. Victor Henri, has found that the bactericidal action varies greatly with the distance of the lamp from the bacteria. With a Cooper Hewitt lamp of 110 volts an exposure of 300 seconds at a distance of 50 centimeters was required in order to kill the bacillus coli. At a distance of 40 centimeters an exposure of 180 seconds was sufficient, and at 30 centimeters 20 seconds. The temperature appeared to have little if any effect for the microbes were destroyed even when the liquid which contained them was frozen. In treating opaque liquids such as milk it was necessary to spread the liquid out in a thin layer. For milk the maximum thickness of layer with which the effect could be produced was one inch. Another investigator produces the ultra-violet light by means of electric discharge in a rarefied gas, a mixture of carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, sulphurated hydrogen, or sulphuric acid.

An interesting description of the rural telephone line in the Quakers was published in a recent number of the Electrical Review and Western Electrician. The farmer in this region is a miserably poor fellow, but he has a telephone. The telephone lines have been installed by amateurs and every variety of telephone is used on them. Owing to the fear of lightning the lines are run in the pole line to the house, but are buried by bending the ends of the wire and hooking them together. When a thunder storm approaches this connection is unhooked and it frequently happens that the owner forgets to re-establish connection with the main line after the storm. The lines are all grounded, making it very difficult for one party to call another. Fifty telephones in a line is considered a light load. The lines are supported on such poles as can be easily obtained, which are seldom sunk to a sufficient depth in the ground to prevent them from leaning at all angles. Trees are also used to support the lines and the branches are cut away to clear the wires. The subscribers appear to be satisfied if only their line "talks." The subscribers usually comply to put up a switchboard in the nearest town and pay some one for attending to the calls.

A very interesting method of electrolysis has been announced by a chemist in England. It is based upon the fact that when a metal is deposited in a liquid it is deposited in a mixed in powdered form with other substances and it is merely necessary to wet the powder and rub it on the surface that is to be plated. The method consists in an electrolytic process in which the anode is an electro-positive metal such as zinc or magnesium, an inert substance such as chalk, and a salt which when wet serves as an electrolyte. The following description of the process is given by the inventor: "The electro-positive metal constitutes the anode and the object treated the cathode, and as 'Gaiwater' contains a quantity of finely powdered electro-positive metal it makes innumerable contacts with the cathode surface and acts as so many minute anodes. These innumerable minute anodes gradually dissolve, and in dissolving set up in the liquid little local circulations of electric current. The elements are so exceedingly small, so exceedingly near together, and so numerous that they cannot be separately observed, and the surface of the metal becomes the seat of innumerable concomitant voltaic and electrolytic actions. Thus the potential or stored up energy of the electrolytic substances in the powder is converted into electric current, and as these currents leave the liquid they throw down from the metallic salt in solution a thick film on the cathode, and it becomes plated over with a deposit."

# SCIENCE.

Prof. Lowell announces that he has discovered a new canal a thousand miles in length on Mars. The canal developed between the equator and September.

It is stated many times that the library newspapers, printed twenty years ago are disintegrating because our modern wood pulp paper is not permanent.

The collection of Indian costumes, weapons and utensils brought together by H. W. Lander of Philadelphia and valued at \$40,000, has been bought by J. Pierpont Morgan and given to the American Museum of Natural History.

The astronomical clock at Hampton Court Palace has been removed for repair and resetting for the first time for nearly thirty years. The clock, which was the first of its kind in England was made for Henry VIII in 1540. In 1800 it was brought from a shed at the palace where it had lain for nearly half a century, and by order of the Office of Works was re-set in the position which it has since occupied in the courtyard of the palace.

The comet discovered by Daniel in December is not the same as one discovered in 1867, for which a period of about forty-two years had been found. This comet has been found to belong to the Jupiter family of comets having a period of about six and a half years. The spectrum of this comet shows four or five of them pass through perihelion every year, but they are in many cases so faint as to elude observation altogether.

W. W. Colby has discovered that one of the ingredients of the milk diet which the fly (*Phormia praeputia*) shows when touched exhibits an intense blue fluorescence when it is exposed to ultra-violet rays. The fluorescence spectrum is very bright and continuous from 4700 to 6100 Å. The unit in which wave-lengths are measured equals 1,000,000 millimeter or 1,250,000 inch. The "phosphorescent" light which the fly emits at night is orange-colored, and its spectrum extends from 6100 to 6700 Å. Hence the two spectra are mutually complementary.

In the northern part of Arhangai, which is the most northerly government of European Russia, a farm for the breeding of domestic animals, such as foxes, sables, martens, and other valuable fur-bearing animals is being established by German capitalists. The soil and climate of this district are exactly suited to the breeding of domestic animals. The farm is only about 5 cents per acre, so that the venture appears very promising at first glance. On the other hand, a large initial outlay is required. The farm contains a large number of buildings, and the building with about from which cost \$27,000, but the building premises of the farm and rodents will probably make it necessary to extend this barrier on a large scale.

F. Boddy finds that the growth of radium proceeds according to the square of the time. On the assumption that no other intermediate bodies intervene the period of the direct parent of radium is 17,500 years. The amount of radium present in the last prepared solution is less than that to be expected, this suggests the existence of at least one new product, "Uranium A" intermediate between uranium X and the parent of radium with a period of the order of one year. It is concluded that this would not appreciably alter the production of radium according to the square of the time over the period observations have been made, but it would alter the average life of the parent of radium according to the Rutherford formula.

A German bird fancier has made a series of experiments for the purpose of determining the vitality of eggs in different stages of incubation. On the fifth day of incubation the embryo bird's eggs were taken from the nest, marked with numbers and replaced in the nest, one by one at half-hour intervals. This experiment was repeated several times with a few exceptions of eggs. As a rule the first three eggs replaced hatched normally and the two others failed to hatch. Hence it may be inferred that the average longevity of a chick in the nest is 14 to 15 hours on the fifth day of incubation is 1 1/2 hours. In the same way the longevity was found to increase to 2 or 2 1/2 hours on the seventh day and 3 1/2 to 4 hours on the ninth day. It was also found that in one accident that eggs in a very advanced stage of incubation can endure very much longer periods of removal from the nest. Two eggs, purchased as plover's eggs, in a nest of a nest of a nest, were taken in a basket, brought home and forgotten. On the evening of the following day a faint "new" recalled the existence of the eggs and it was found that a young bird had hatched from one of them. The second egg was found to be a very advanced stage of incubation. Hence it appears that the vitality of partly hatched eggs depends on the state of the bird as well as on the stage of incubation.

# An Account of a Trip in the Largest Balloon Ever Constructed

A BALLOON TRIP OF FORTY YEARS AGO.

It is doubtful whether the sensation of traveling in an airship has ever been better described than was done forty-nine years ago last June by Gerrit H. Mallory and published in the Philadelphia Inquirer, June 23rd 1850 after a voyage in the largest airship that had ever been constructed up to that time.

Mr Mallory was a gentleman of education and fine descriptive talent and later commanded a brigade of cavalry during the civil war. Prof. T. B. C. Lowe, the aeronaut in charge, has a distinguished civil war record as an aerial scout. He is constructing a great modern airship in his home city, Pasadena, California in Mallory's account, somewhat abbreviated.

"The ascent of Mr Lowe's mammoth airship on Thursday last was by no means an ordinary occasion. *Forty-nine* scientific aeronauts had in treatise and speeches positively demonstrated that it could not float.

Accordingly, when on the ground, we were beset with gratuitous advice from self constituted professors and atmospheric voyagers to the effect that it was unwise to risk the untimed experiment, and as to our friends we were ridiculed, threatened, calumniated, bribed, and wept over by turns.

"So we held a council of war with ourselves in attempted cool reason and positively could not see why an increase of capacity in a balloon must necessarily diminish its efficiency, or that a greater range in the amount of gas to be evolved on the occasion, and in the number of men and bags to be retained or thrown away according to the object of ascent or descent, should destroy control over the element to be navigated.

"The few uncut ropes are held by strong arms, the enterprising workman who seems to desire an ascent on the edge of the basket is induced to get down and put a bag of sand in his place, the other two gentlemen who determine at the eleventh hour to acquire aerial honors scramble in when the swaying has begun, the 'last dying speech and confession' has been made, all hands let go—and we are off! We don't believe it, however, in the slightest degree. There is no motion perceptible, and we ourselves are entirely stationary. Something to be sure is the matter with the field. It has dropped. Perhaps that is the reason why the crowd down below there is making such a noise. They



LOWE'S DIRIGIBLE BALLOON.  
After an old newspaper print.

are frightened, most probably. To be sure, they have some reason, for it is a rather alarming occurrence for the solid earth to fall down in that way, especially when all nature is so calm, and the sun shines so happily, and our car is so nice and fixed. So we feel badly about our unfortunate fellow beings who are momentarily becoming smaller. Suddenly a brilliant idea

seizes us that we have actually begun the great ascent, and we forthwith begin to wave the flags and hurrah and jump. No, we don't jump, for there isn't room, but we would if we could. The miles down below give cheer after cheer responsive, and run fullily in our course, and we fly away.

"Although nothing could have been easier than to have risen immediately to a great height, yet as the lower breeze was wholly and light, we purposely remained in it, as thereby a deliberate view of the city and its environs was presented that could not be hoped for once in a thousand times. We had precisely the day, the hour, the current, and, above all, the balloon for a bird's eye inspection of Philadelphia, so called calmly on, silent, and ravished with ecstasy. At the altitude of three thousand feet we look down fondly on Grey's Ferry, Darby, and the park, scenes of our quiescent pleasure, and then turn to the sparse houses of semi-rural Moravians, picturesquely isolated in green lakes and foliage. Next we glide on over the great city, seeming to its atop in that soft summer evening, with never a breath to disturb its happy rest, save the vague murmur of life which steals upward toward us, like the distant hum of invisible insects. We are higher now, and to the naked eye vast buildings like the Continentals are distinguished chiefly by their known position, but as we pass along, the streets radiate on all sides with mathematical exactness, bordered with faint green lines of foliage. The public squares are patches of verdant enamel, and the spires point up at us with the beams of the sun shining from their whiteness until they only can be likened to the hair-foot appearing in a window in winter. Far away Girard College is discerned in the distance as an antithesis of marble dust, and Fairmount is found in a fairy tangle, with the Schuylkill curving close to it like a silver thread dropped, perhaps, from the robes of Titania herself. But it is perfectly vain to attempt any description of this most exquisite scene, which naught but the colors of the most skilled could pretend to convey to any who have not beheld it. Indeed, it was all to us but a seeming picture seen in an unscrupulous vision. There was no reality about it. We were real, and the car, but every-

(Continued on page 257)

## VERTICAL PHOTOGRAPHY

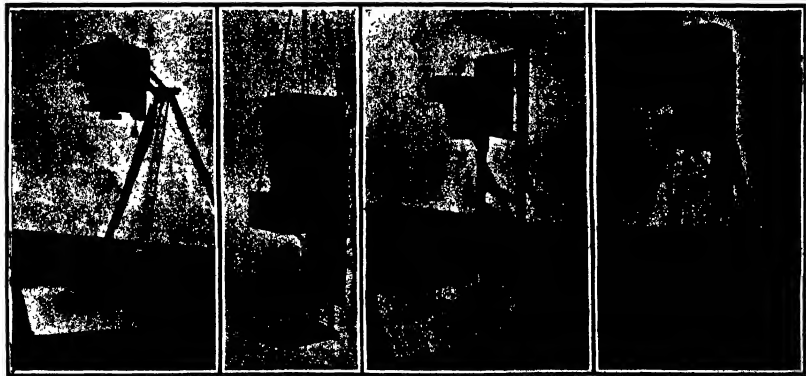
BY CHARLES MONROE MANSFIELD.

In recording scientific material, whether plants or their fruits, or any peculiar material of which a record in nature is valuable, the exact size is always desirable. Various apparatus have been constructed to support the camera and hold the subjects, but the real secret lies in the focus of the lens. Any subject placed twice the focal length of the lens from the

lens, and the lens twice its focal length from the focal plane, will give a picture natural in size. For example, a nine-inch focus lens placed eighteen inches from the subject and the focal plane the same distance from the lens will give a natural size image in focus on the ground glass without further adjusting the camera.

Nearly all actual life work is done vertically. This gives the operator the privilege of manipulating his 'under ground during the exposure without interfering with the subject. The object to be photographed is usually placed on a glass support, which may be either plain or ground, and the back or under

(Concluded on page 257)



Just as ordinary camera and tilted tripod lens. The lens of the prism may be adjusted to give the subject the desired height. The plate may be supported by feet or by a wooden frame. This is a very simple method.

The operator can remove the entire camera and the subject, and the camera may be supported from a tree.

This is a very simple stand for vertical photography. The camera may be moved to the desired height, and the plate may be supported by feet or by a wooden frame. This is a very simple method.

The object supports may be arranged so that the camera may be tilted to the desired height. The plate may be supported by feet or by a wooden frame. This is a very simple method.

VERTICAL PHOTOGRAPHY.

# AN INTERNAL COMBUSTION WATER PUMP

THE INGENUOUS INVENTION OF H. A. HUMPHREY

Widespread interest has been aroused in European engineering circles in a new type of pump that has been evolved by a well-known English engineer, Mr. H. A. Humphrey, M. Inst. C. E. It is based upon an entirely new principle, and is a revolutionary departure from existing practice, the novelty of the design compelling as much attention as its remarkable efficiency and economy.

The pump is based on the fundamental principle of internal explosion, but does away with all the usual working parts of a gas engine, such as the piston, connecting rod, crankshaft, fly wheel, two-one gear cam and bearings. There are no moving parts what ever except the simple mushroom valve, which opens and closes automatically, due to pressure changes, and the use of a fly-wheel is not necessary because a column of water, forming part of the water pumped, acts as a reciprocating flywheel. The water column, which also acts as a piston, has four unequal strokes, such as they require when expansion is carried to atmospheric pressure. These strokes comprise long strokes during combustion and expansion as well as during exhaust, a shorter stroke during suction, and a still shorter stroke during compression. There is no valve across the discharge pipe at any point, so that the water has a perfectly free passage from the explosion chamber to the high level tank.



INTERNAL COMBUSTION WATER PUMP.

The explosive mixture of gas and air is ignited, as in the ordinary internal-combustion engine, and in contact with one end of a column of water which fulfills the dual function of piston and flywheel and moves so as to draw in a fresh combustible charge, to compress this charge previous to explosion, to permit expansion to be carried to atmospheric pressure, and finally to exhaust the products of combustion. All these movements are brought about and controlled by changes in the momentum, which occur naturally in the column of water itself.

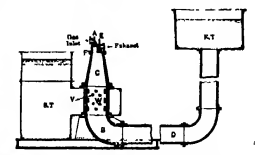
In order to explain the cycle of operations in a pump of the simplest type, a reference to the accompanying diagram will be found useful. The pump proper is built up from three main castings, which are the combustion chamber C, the water valve chamber W, and the bend B, which connects the pump to the discharge pipe D, leading to the elevated tank K. The suction tank S is extended to embrace the valve-box chamber, as shown, so that there is free access of water to all the water valves V. The last are plain mushroom valves, opening inward, and held on their seating by light springs. In the top of the combustion chamber is an inlet valve A, as well as an exhaust valve E. Arranged between these two valves is a simple interlocking device, so that when valve

A has opened and closed it locks itself shut, and releases valve E, and when valve E has opened and closed it locks itself shut and releases valve A. Consequently, each time suction occurs in the chamber, these valves open.

For the purpose of demonstration, suppose a gaseous charge is compressed in the top of the combustion chamber C, and is ignited in the usual manner by the sparking plug. As the products of the explosion expand or head of the combustion chamber. All the valves are shut at the instant the charge is exploded, and

A has opened and closed it locks itself shut, and releases valve E, and when valve E has opened and closed it locks itself shut and releases valve A. Consequently, each time suction occurs in the chamber, these valves open.

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SECTIONAL VIEW OF INTERNAL COMBUSTION PUMP.

the increase in pressure resulting from the expanded gases forces the water downward in the pump, and sets the whole column of water in the bend B and discharge pipe D in motion. The column of water attains kinetic energy while work is being done upon it by the expanding gases, so that when these gases finally expand to atmospheric pressure, the column of water may be moving, say, 8 feet per second. The motion (Continued on page 457.)

# RAPID TRANSIT BY BELT CONVEYOR

A PROPOSED AMPLIFICATION OF NEW YORK'S SUBWAY

The method of rapid transit by means of continuously moving endless platforms has never as yet received the attention which its unquestionable advantages deserve, for, within certain limits of speed, it possesses a capacity for carrying passengers which is so far beyond that of any existing system as to place it in a class by itself. That the system has not been put into practical application in the solution of those problems of congested city traffic for which it is so admirably adapted, can only be explained by the extreme novelty of the method employed, the inertia of that deep-rooted conservatism which, even in this strictly utilitarian age, exerts such a powerful controlling influence on human affairs. The construction and operation of the moving passenger platform is so simple, and its great carrying capacity is so obvious, that its advantages are readily perceived even by the layman who may have no particular mechanical aptitude or training, and it is certainly significant that the proposal to equip a section of the proposed New York Subway with a moving platform has received the endorsement of such men as Henry B. Seaman, the Chief Engineer of the Public Service Commission, and of Mr. L. B. Stillwell, the electrical engineer who was responsible for the electrical equipment of the Elevated Railroad and the New York Subway system. Interest in the proposed moving platform has been recently revived by the recommendation of the Board of Estimate of this city that a moving platform be installed in a subway extending across Manhattan Island from the East to the Hudson River, below Thirty-fourth Street, and on the front page of the present issue is a sectional illustration, which shows the general character of the construction both of the subway and of the moving platform itself.

In those branches of our industries, for the economical operation of which it is absolutely necessary that material be conveyed from place to place at a maximum speed and with a minimum cost, it has been found that there is no system of transportation which so perfectly fulfills these conditions as the belt conveyor. Particularly in the case where a great bulk of material, consisting of more or less finely divided units, such as coal, iron ore, and wheat, have to be moved in great quantities with as little interrup-

tion as possible and without any manipulation by hand. In this system, an endless belt moves continuously in a given direction, and facilities are provided for loading the material on the belt at any desired point and for unloading it therefrom at any desired point of delivery.

The moving platform is nothing more nor less than a huge belt conveyor, in which the material to be conveyed consists of the traveling millions which constitute the passenger traffic of a great city, with provision for loading the passengers at any point throughout the length of the platform and unloading them while the latter is in motion. The train consists of short jointed platforms, coupled together and forming an endless chain which is kept in continuous motion. This platform is provided with transverse

later or moving stairways, of which many are now in operation throughout the country, remove any doubt of passengers being able after a little practice to accommodate themselves to the speed of three miles an hour involved in both the loading and unloading.

The advantages of the arrangement as summed up by the Chief Engineer of the Public Service Commission are as follows:

- 1 A vastly increased capacity, and seats for all passengers.
- 2 There is no delay incurred by waiting for trains at stations, as the train is always there and constantly moving.
- 3 Passengers may board or leave the train at any point at will, and instead of placing stations one-third of a mile apart, as on the present Subway, they may be placed at every cross street, or, indeed at any intermediate point, and the construction may take the form of a continuous arcade.

In its general construction the tunnel would be similar to those built for the ordinary Subway traffic. It is proposed, however, to build arched structures, with low, flat, stone-lined ceilings at basement level, and continue the promenade between them, and the barrier separating them from the Subway platform. At each street crossing, and if it be desired at one or more points between them ticket booths and turnstiles will be installed. An arrangement which would permit passengers to board the cars practically at any desired point throughout the length of the subway.

The arrangement for driving the platform by electrical power are as follows. Extending longitudinally beneath each platform is a pair of I-beams, the upper flanges of which are riveted to the bottom of the platform, while the lower flanges serve to support the weight of the platform upon pairs of wheels, which are carried upon transverse shafts mounted at intervals of 2 feet 9 inches, upon rollers, as shown in the engraving. Between each pair of longitudinal I-beams is carried a pair of horizontal guide wheels which engage a guide rail that serves to keep the platform in proper alignment. At every 75 feet, 10-horse-power motors are mounted on the floor of the subway, and are connected by a chain drive. (Continued on page 457.)



View of the method of driving the platforms by means of stationary electric motors and differential rubber-tired wheels.

## RAPID TRANSIT BY BELT CONVEYOR.

sets, and it travels at a continuous uniform speed of twelve miles per hour. For transferring the passenger from the fixed station platform to the seated platform, there are introduced between them three narrow "loading platforms" which move at differential speeds. The first of these adjoining the station platform moves at three miles per hour, the next at six, and the next at nine miles per hour. The passenger who wishes to board the train, faces the direction in which it is moving, steps onto the three-mile-per-hour platform, and, crossing the other two comparatively, takes his seat. The masses of the accom-

## CONDENSED FACTS ABOUT HALLEY'S COMET.

BY H. W. HARRISON.

A few facts presented in a condensed form may possibly interest the readers of the Scientific American who wish to follow the course of Halley's comet in the heavens during its present apparition.

The last perihelion passage occurred on November 16th 1835. The present perihelion passage will occur on April 20th 1910. The perihelion distance will be 0.547, and the aphelion distance will be 5.170. The eccentricity is 0.967, the longitude of ascending node is 57 deg 16 min, the node and aphelion being in 111 deg 17 min. The inclination of the orbit is 1162 deg 12 min + 17 deg 48 min -- the longitude of perihelion is 70 deg 4 + and the motion is retrograde in other words opposite to that of the planet. The diameter of the nucleus is not of course to be stated with anything like accuracy at the present time, but it is not likely to exceed 120,000 miles.

At the end of February Prof Barnard of Yerkes Observatory estimated the tail to be 14,000,000 miles long. Just before and after perihelion passage the tail will be at least that long and probably longer. The comet is fast approaching its perihelion point, or point nearest the sun where, as we have said, it is due to arrive on April 20th. During the months of February and March, the earth and the comet are racing on practically parallel orbits, 170,000,000 miles apart on opposite sides of the sun.

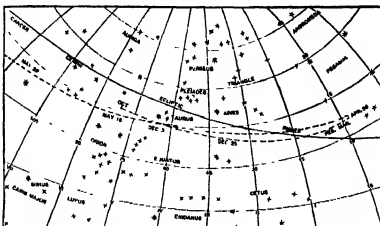
The comet first crossed the earth's orbit about March 19th at a point where the earth will arrive at the middle of next October, but far above where the place will be so to speak for it will be some 10,000,000 miles above the plane of the ecliptic. In April the comet will emerge from behind the sun, and will become visible to the naked eye in the eastern sky before sunrise.

On April 20th, when the comet will swing around the sun, it will be 57,000,000 miles away from the sun. Its velocity will be 26 miles a second. The earth travels at about 19 miles a second. On May 2nd the comet will cross the orbit of Venus, some 6,000,000 miles above the planet. In other words, an astronomer on Venus would find the comet a far more impressive spectacle than a terrestrial astronomer. As it rushes on, Halley's comet will pass between the earth and sun close to its ascending node. On May 18th the earth will be about 13,000,000 miles away from the nucleus or head as against 5,000,000 miles in 1835. Moreover, on May 18th the earth will be enveloped in the comet's tail for a few hours. A few days later the comet will be visible in the western sky after sunset with a 15 deg or 20 deg spreader. After that it will speed away from the solar system. The last glimpse of it with the naked eye will be obtained probably at the end of June. It will not reappear for seventy-five years. Halley's comet is noteworthy because it was the first comet for which an orbit was plotted and a time table calculated. It has a history more or less inter-

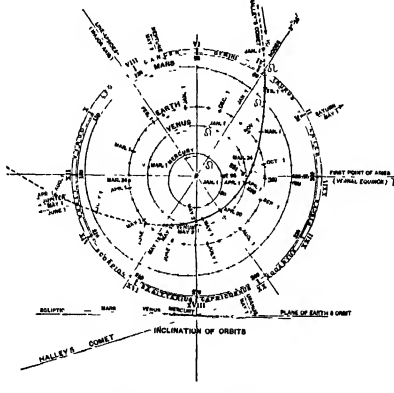
bed with the history of human thought and civilization. The superstitious dread with which it was regarded in medieval and ancient times swayed many a monarch. It was instrumental in forming the political of Louis le Debonnaire in 857. It blazed in the

tion which was verified after the great astronomer was in his grave.

A comet which has reappeared regularly for over two thousand years must be composed of fairly enduring stuff. Just what its composition may be, the present reappearance will be the first time enable us to tell, for in 1858 the spectroscopic was not invented, nor astronomical photography perfected.



THE APPARENT PATH OF HALLEY'S COMET THROUGH THE HEAVENS.



HALLEY'S COMET AND THE EARTH.

There are the orbits show positions of planets and comet every 30 days. Positions for January 1st 1910, are shown thus "Jan. 1." The ascending nodes, or points where the orbits first cross the ecliptic, are shown thus "J." Detail portions of the orbits illustrate the part before the ecliptic. The outer circle shows the sign of the zodiac. The smaller (concentric) circles show the right ascension and declination in hours. The inclination diagram shows the great angle of the comet's orbit.

sky when the Turks threatened to overrun Europe in 1404, and when the Reformation was at its height in 1531. It struck terror to the Saxons under Harold in 1066, when they were conquered by William of Normandy. This fear of the middle ages was dispelled only when Halley made his great prediction in 1682 that the comet would return in 1758, a predic-

tion which was verified after the great astronomer was in his grave.

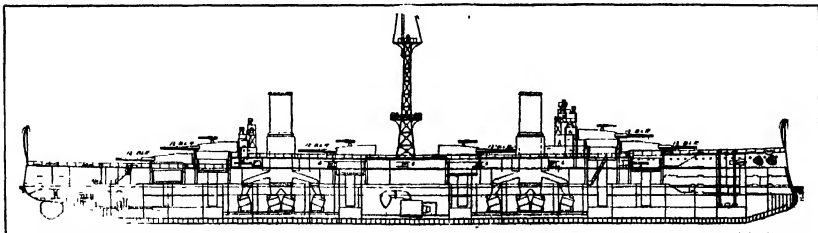
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## THE NEW AMERICAN DESANDROVETS.

Thanks to two contemporaries devoted to South American interests, La Argentina and the Standard of Buenos Ayres, we are in a position to publish some quite complete information regarding the two new dreadnoughts, the "Wyoming" and "Oklahoma." They are 80 feet longer, have about 3 feet more beam, about a foot less draft, and their displacement is 1,500 tons greater. The ships are fully protected, and if expectations are fulfilled, they will have two knots greater speed, a result to which their greater length and finer lines will largely contribute. The armor plan appears to be about the same, with the addition, however, of a certain amount of special protection against under-water attack. Because of the emplacement of the two central turrets diagonally, the end-on fire, both fore and aft, will be double that of our ships, the broadside fire will be about the same.

A study of the inboard profile for which we are indebted to La Argentina, reveals a symmetrical disposition both of the gun and motor-power weights, and one is impressed with the fact that, with the exception of the aftermost pair of guns, the battery is carried high above the water upon a lofty unbroken spar deck extending some 450 feet throughout the length of the ship. Another excellent feature is that the secondary battery is mounted entirely upon the main deck, or on deck higher than is our own "Wyoming." Hence, these guns should be capable of service in practically any weather in which an action could be carried on. The main battery is mounted in two stepped turrets forward and a similar pair aft and in the two turrets placed in echelon amidships. The single military mast, built apparently of open steel framework, is placed vertically at the center of the ship, and arily it are the engine-room compartments containing the propelling turbines immediately fore and aft of the engine room are the turret hoists and ammunition rooms for the central pair of turrets. Fore and aft of these are the main magazines, the ammunition rooms, while fore and aft of these compartments, again, are the turret hoists and ammunition rooms for the forward and after pairs of turrets.

The separation of the two military masts from the neighborhood of the forward smokestack, bridge, conning tower and forward turret is advantageous, in-



Length, 314 feet. Beam, 30 feet. Displacement, 17,000 tons. Belt and Turret Armor, 12 inches. Armament: 12-inch, twelve 6-inch and twelve 4-inch guns. Speed, 21 knots.

SECTIONAL VIEW, SHOWING LEADING FEATURES OF THE TWO AMERICAN DESANDROVETS.



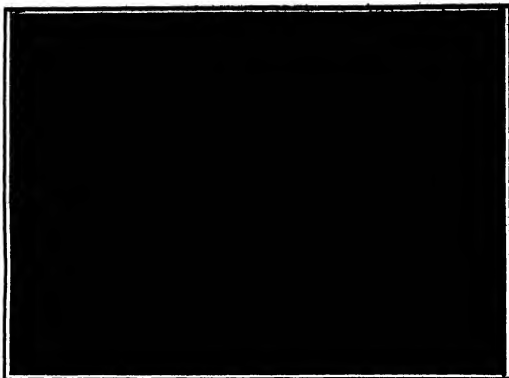
## A NEW TELEPHOTO CAMERA

BY THE PUBLISHED EDITOR OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

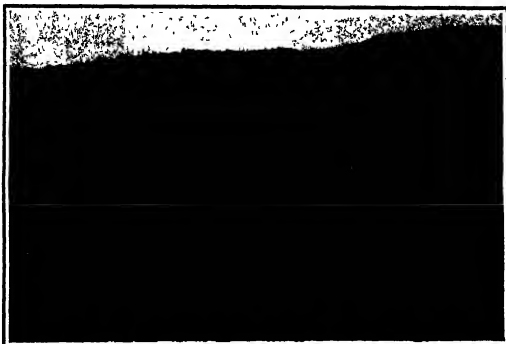
It may seem far easier than it is to construct a camera which will give an enlarged image so as to bring out the details of objects at great distances. To give a large image a long focus lens is required, of four foot focus for example. But a camera to use this lens must be of very great length and weight, and, therefore, is said to be portable.

In the instrument illustrated, which was designed on the Venter-Dupont and Röhrl system, the inventors have solved the problem of preserving the focal length of the lens and at the same time reducing the volume and weight of the apparatus by cutting the focal length into thirds with the aid of two mirrors. In the instrument illustrated, the lens is placed in the upper part of the double box. The light passing through the lens is reflected from the upper mirror *M* placed at the back of the box to the mirror *M'* at the front end of the lower section, and thence to the usual ground glass *P* at the back. In this manner a camera of sixteen inches length is sufficient for a lens of four-foot focus, with an evident saving in weight and reduction of volume. Such an instrument is quite portable. The upper part of the camera is made on the extendible plan, and is drawn up and out of the lower box when the photograph is to be taken.

Up to the present time the different combinations of lenses for telephotography have all had one great fault, namely, a want of luminosity and consequent difficulty in focusing. It was almost impossible to use such lenses for snap shots. The camera illustrated takes instantaneous views in the usual way. The

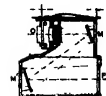


The city of Neuchâtel and the Rhine Falls taken with an ordinary camera.



A photograph of military maneuvers taken with an ordinary camera.

lens opening is always in ratio with the focal length of the lens,  $f/10$  to  $f/12$  for the extra rapid. The luminosity is thus always sufficient for instantaneous work. For the photography of inaccessible places, such as mountains of details of architecture or scenes in which the interesting spot is at a great distance from the observer, the new camera performs very good work, as will be noticed in some of the negatives presented here. In a balloon the new system renders it possible to take rapid instantaneous views which would be impossible with an ordinary tele-objective. Such views are very difficult to take, not only because of the distance of the objects, but because of the continual movement of the balloon, which makes rapid snap-shots necessary. Snap-shots can now be taken up to 1/3,000th second which would be quite impossible with any tele-lens with which we are acquainted. At the full opening the present lens gives pictures which are sharp up to the edges of the plate.



Of this lens, the rays parallel through the lens are reflected off from the mirror *M* to the mirror *M'* and from there to the ground glass *P*. In this manner a camera of 16 inches in length suffices for a lens of four-foot focus.

The present camera has already undergone trials in a few balloons on board the balloon "Mars" of the Swiss Aero Club, and the photographer took some very sharp views, which it would have been impossible to obtain with an ordinary apparatus.

Its use in field work is shown in two of the annexed views representing army maneuvers. In the first

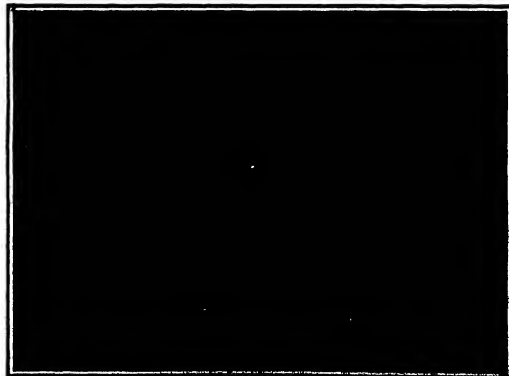
view, taken with an ordinary camera, the troops in the background can hardly be distinguished, while in the second view we clearly see the individual soldiers and can follow all their movements with ease. One of the views shows a photograph, taken on board the balloon "Mars" of the town of Neuchâtel and the Rhine Falls at an altitude of 1,000 meters (4,300 feet) with an ordinary camera. The second view is taken from the same point with the new apparatus. Its use in architectural work is also seen.

## Why Are We Right-Handed?

BY JOHN N. MURKIN, A. B., M. A.

From time to time ambidexterity is extolled as generally desirable, and there are to-day educators who consider that development of the left, coequal with that of the right hand should be begun with the entrance of little children in our schools. It is, therefore, perhaps profitable to discuss in what manner right-handedness—by which I would here connote right-handedness in general—has become, habitual among 98 per cent of human kind; and whether ambidexterity is really desirable.

The lower animals, at least those which have not been taught tricks, use their fore paws indiscriminately, the cat strikes at a fly or plays with a mouse indifferently with either or both paws; the squirrel manipulates nuts and clings to branches quite as indifferently. Even in monkeys or gorillas, which of all animals use the fore paws mostly as hands, there is no suggestion of preferential use or superior expert-



The city of Neuchâtel and the Rhine Falls, taken with the Venter-Dupont camera.

A NEW TELEPHOTO CAMERA.



ness in the left or the right hand, states Dr. G. M. Gould, but animals can be trained to use one or the other paw, the dog is taught to shake hands with the right paw; the monkey to shoot man-was, with the musket butt at the right shoulder. Among microcephalic idiots, whose small-headedness is due to arrested development, left-handedness and ambidexterity have been found to reach a proportion of fifty per cent. But as we go up in the evolutionary scale of normal creatures, and as we exclude disease, we find that ambidexterity progressively gives way to single-handedness—generally right-handedness. Sir James Crofton Browne observed quite truly some years ago, that "by the superior skill of his right hand man hath gotten himself the victory" in the evolutionary struggle. To try to undo his dorsal pre-eminence is to make for devolution.

Right-handedness in man, it seems, are manifest in the bronze age and in Paleolithic times. It is evident in the art of the ancients—Assyrian, Grecian, Egyptian. Historic investigation shows that all peoples, however savage, have uniformly used by preference not only one but the same hand—the right. It is said that some have today manifest either-handedness, but this is in the last degree doubtful. Such statements have, for example, been made concerning the Japanese—that they are by law and practice ambidextrous. But Baron Komura has given positive assurance to the contrary. Sir James believes it doubtful whether "strictly speaking, complete ambidexterity exists in any fully developed and civilized human beings, though sometimes very close approximations to it occur."

Most human beings, then, are right-handed, though of course, there are those of great intellectuality and force who are ambidextrous, having educated themselves to this end, and are exceptional by reason of the peculiar and special training they have undergone. The origin of right-hand edness will be found, I believe, to lie much deeper than the individual's voluntary selection whether he will use his right hand or his left, or whether he will be ambidextrous, the reason is to be found in human

anatomy—in the position of the heart, and in the cerebral structure and organization by which latter all voluntary movements are directed and controlled. Consider in the first place how the heart and its



The Parthenon taken with an ordinary camera.

great arteries are left-sided, though in the primordial organism from which we have evolved there was, it seems, no such symmetry. The savage, from time immemorial, has protected his heart with his left, his

shield arm, but his executive manipulations are made with his right, his spear arm. The modern savage too, though he bears no shield—which would be useless against modern weapons—draws his musket uniformly (in a double sense) from the right shoulder, sighting with his right eye, the sword also is wielded in the right hand. These

cussing nerve fibers, over the left side of the body, while the left brain presides over the right side. And functional differences in the two sides are connected with and contingent upon differences in the two hemispheres. The left brain, in all right-handed people, is more highly developed than the right brain. It is said that this greater development of the left brain in the right-handed is so because the heart, being on the left side of the body, sends its blood with greater force and directness to the left brain. It does send the blood more directly into the left side of the neck, but the flow of blood at the base of the brain is so equalized in the "circle of Willis," that the theory here stated can hardly be accepted as conclusive. Besides, it is contradicted by the cases of left-handedness (which make up about four per cent of humanity) in which the heart is on the left side, precisely as with the right-handed.

An extremely important anatomical consideration is that in right-handed people the "speech center" is situated in Broca's convolution in the cortex of the left frontal lobe, while in left-handed people the speech center is in the same position, but in the right frontal lobe. Now it has been found that damage to Broca's convolution in the left hemisphere deprives the right-handed man of speech, which is unimpaired in the left-handed man under the same circumstances, the left-handed man would suffer in the same way, were

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things are absolutely fixed in our military customs and have been so throughout history.

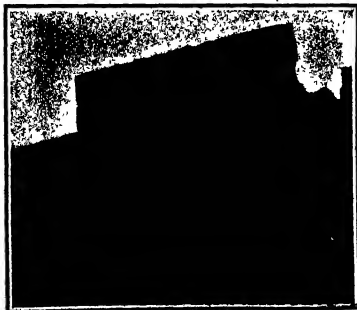
Again, in obedience to the universal need for brevity—so Dr. Gould points out—the primitive practice was counting with the few numbers, one to ten. The fingers of the free dorsal hand were first used, and all fingers are now called digits, as are the figures therein, and the basis of our numbering is the decimal or ten-fingered system.

The second important fact in human anatomy is that all our voluntary movements are directed and controlled in the cerebral structure and organization. The brain has two hemispheres, of which the right presides, by means of certain descending nerve fibers, over the left side of the body, while the left brain presides over the right side. And functional differences in the two sides are connected with and contingent upon differences in the two hemispheres.

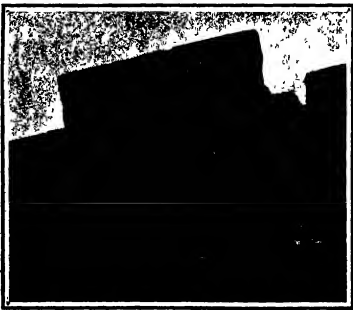
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(Continued on page 262)



Detail of Parthenon taken with telephoto camera.



The effect obtained by ordinary enlargement of a detail in a photograph.

## THERMAL TREATMENT OF STEEL INGOTS

BY J. F. SPRINGER

There are two considerable imperfections which accompany the casting of steel ingots. The more conspicuous one is that of the pipe. This is a conical cavity which forms in the upper portion. In Fig. 1 we have in the center two longitudinal slabs taken from steel ingots which exhibit this pipe very clearly. The usual explanation of this curious formation is that it is a consequence of contraction. A mold full of molten metal can not be full when the ingot has cooled off. There is in fact a volumetric loss of perhaps 5 per cent. But this does not account for the form of the pipe. Why should it be conical? It has been suggested that perhaps contraction at the moment of solidification controls this matter. To this, however, the answer is made that gray cast iron expands at this moment, not contracts. It forms a pipe. Whether steel expands or contracts in the act of freezing no one seems to know with any certainty. But steel ingots form decided pipes as any steel maker will tell you. Prof. Howe has proposed an explanation which may help us somewhat. When the ex-coolingly hot steel is tremed into the mold it finds the walls and bottom of that mold at a very low temperature, comparatively. These molds involve quite a large mass of material as may be understood by noting the substantial character of those shown in Fig. 2. Their cooling effect is consequently a considerable factor. The first solid metal of this cooling ingot will constitute a shell conforming to the sides and bottom of the mold and containing a heavy mass of molten steel. Now, whether expansion or contraction takes place at the very moment of freezing, the steel of this shell will undoubtedly steadily contract. As this goes on, it meets resistance from the weight of the liquid within. Prof. Howe thinks that at times the elastic limit will be exceeded. There would thus arise a tendency to "wet," with the shell upon final cooling larger in cross section than would otherwise have been the case. Of course, the solidifying material contacting with the shell on the inside will cling to it. And further, one may conceive that, as the shell thickens, successive layers will come to normal temperature with expanded cross sections, for reasons similar to those controlling the outer shell. If so much is granted, it is easy to see that there is a tendency to leave the region of the axis empty. There is, however, another tendency at work seeking to nullify this. This is the gravitation of the fluid metal. This tends to fill up the pipe at the bottom. And so the lower portion of the ingot becomes solid throughout. But this transference of material from points above to points below imperatives the upper portion, with the result that a pipe really forms, and that it is more extensive in cross section as one ascends.

To eliminate the pipe many procedures have been employed. These divide themselves into the mechanical methods and thermal ones. Perhaps the most successful process which has yet found its way into commercial practice is the thermal procedure described in an article by the author in the *Scientific American* for May 25th, 1909. Methods, such as this, operate

with a view of eliminating the pipe through the forcing in of its walls upon themselves while the interior of the ingot is in a liquid or plastic condition. The elaborateness of the apparatus necessary, and the length of time required, are serious considerations



Fig. 1.—The six transverse slabs and the right-hand vertical slab were poured by the hot-top process.

which operate against some, at least, of the mechanical processes. But efforts have been made to solve the problem by thermal means. If the steel at the top could be kept highly liquid until the lower part of the ingot becomes solid, then with such a reservoir perhaps the pipe could be progressively filled up as it formed. Upon some such fundamental idea the thermal processes depend. Krupp is said to have poured molten slag upon the tops of the ingots. Apparently



Fig. 2.—Sauvour's overflow method of pouring ingots.

but little is known of the measure of success. This might, perhaps, provide a good method. The slag would furnish considerable heat. Its lower specific gravity would prevent any mechanical penetration into the steel of the ingots. It has been found that, if ingots are cast, having a considerable taper with the large end up, the pipe will be reduced. In fact, a very considerable shortening has been accomplished in this

way. Experiments have been tried where the metal was steel, slag, and wax. All show improvement. No doubt this effect is due to the retardation of the cooling thus effected at the top by the provision there of a large mass of metal. That is to say, the pipe is shortened if cooling is accomplished from below. There is, however, a strong objection to this method in that, although its length is reduced, the pipe is now located in the large end, and, thus, involves more metal in proportion to its length. Its corrective influence is thus discounted somewhat. There is another objection on the score that this method would involve complications in stripping the molds from the ingots. However, that a large source of heat at the top is of advantage is further testified to by certain experience had with thermit. It has been found that by introducing this compound by means of a rod into the upper portion of an ingot, the pipe could be somewhat shortened. This result is, no doubt, due to the considerable heat set free upon the chemical reaction taking place between the thermit and the molten steel. The experiments with wax ingots carried out by Prof. Howe and Blough ton give evidence in the same direction. In account of these experiments may be found in an article by the present writer in the *Scientific American* for April 24th, 1909, where the marked difference in the length of pipe effected by casting with the big end up and the reverse is well shown by ingots Nos. 4 and 5.

In the case of ingots Nos. 6 and 7 we have the contrast realized by keeping the temperature hot at the top and cool at the bottom and vice versa. The difference measured in percentage of ingot preserved from piping amounted to 46 per cent. This advantage of nearly one-half the whole ingot was in favor of the hot top. Of course, these experiments were carried out in wax and not in steel. At the same time, they have their weight as corroborative evidence. Some years ago experiments were tried with steel by what may be called the overfill method. This is Prof. Sauvour's process. A number of molds were arranged in a way not unlike that disclosed in Fig. 2. By pouring continuously into the one on the left all may be filled. It was thus found upon one or more occasions that the first and second ingots whose heads were for the longest period kept hot and provided with liquid supplies of steel, disclosed no pipes. The next two had small pipes, involving about 4 or 5 per cent of the ingot length.

Now all these experiences prepare us to expect a decided success from the Riemer hot top process as used in Germany. This inventor applies a gas furnace to the ingot top. Apparently, however, others had had a similar idea. It would seem that their processes received but inconsiderable attention. Now Riemer not only applies his furnace but he equips it at once. Further, he provides an immense supply of heat. He thus prevents any tendency to the formation of a crust over the top. However, whether we understand why it should seem necessary to furnish heat not only in great amount but with great prominence the fact

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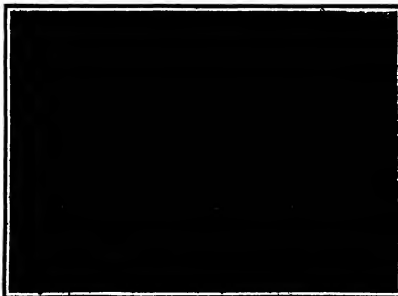


Fig. 3.—Gas furnace is here being used to pre-heat the mold before pouring the ingot.



Fig. 4.—Gas furnace in operation heating the top of a 16-ton ingot while metal is being poured into the mold.

PREVENTION OF PIPE AND SHORTENING BY KEEPING TOP OF INGOT AT HIGH POINT DURING POURING.

## EGGS OF CURIOUS FORMS

BY PERCY COLLINS

When we consider that with the exception of the class mammals, practically every creature dwelling upon the earth at the present moment began life within the walls of an envelope popularly termed an egg, it becomes clear that the appellation must do duty for a very varied assemblage of objects. Not many people are aware that even the mammals (or animals that suckle their young) include several egg-layers, yet such is undoubtedly the case. These strange creatures are all native of that continent of animal curiosities, namely, Australia, although two of them—the echidnas—are also found in New Guinea. These echidnas are queer ant-eater-like animals, of

whose habits comparatively little seems to be known, save that they subsist mainly on insects, and that they really do lay eggs.

Much more detailed accounts are extant respecting the habits of the duck-bill *Ornithorhynchus paradoxus* (as science terms it) is not unlike a pigmy mole in shape, save that it possesses a remarkable tail and feet and bill of duck-like design. Its habits closely resemble those of the common water rat. Frequenting the streams of southern and eastern Australia, it makes its nest in a burrow in the bank. Here Mother Duck-bill lays two white, flexible-shelled eggs, about three-quarters of an inch in length. When first

hatched, the tiny duck-bills are both blind and naked, but in process of time they acquire the adult characteristics, and issue from the nest hole to food and frolic in the river with their parents.

Leaving now the mammals, we find that all known birds lay eggs, the largest being that of the ostrich. Many of these eggs come from Africa, and after being scratched, painted, "poker-worked" or otherwise adorned, are used for decorative purposes. Thus we are all familiar with them, and can well imagine that the contents of one would form a bountiful meal. But the ostrich's egg would have appeared quite small be-

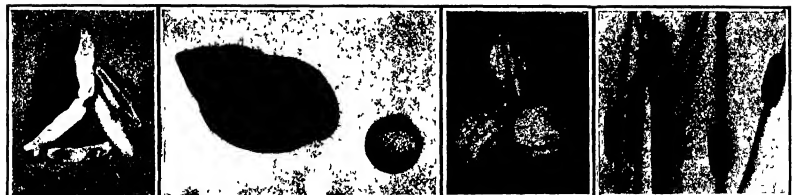
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Duck-bill and egg.

Male midwife frog.

Duck-bill and its egg compared with kiwi and its egg

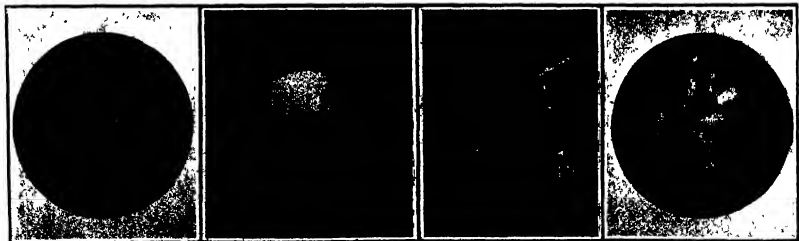
1. Egg cluster of common whelk.  
2. Egg-shells of tarant shell.Egg-case of  
egg-shell.Egg-case of hammerhead  
sharkTypical cluster of snakes'  
eggs

Eggs of honeyeater (magnified).

West Indian Bullfinch shell and egg

Eggs of a moth (magnified).

Egg clusters of Monticola or "rear-horn"

Eggs of parasite of hornbill  
(magnified).Egg of gopher tortoise—a perfect  
sphere.Egg of parasite of domestic fowl  
(magnified).Egg of parasite of a bird house  
(magnified).

EGGS OF OVERSEA FISHES.

## CURIOSITIES OF SCIENCE AND INVENTION

## MOTOR-CYCLE AUXILIARY FOR BICYCLES

A power attachment for bicycles has recently been invented which calls for no structural alterations to be made in the ordinary bicycle and which can be attached or detached in a few minutes. The device comprises a small auxiliary wheel 20 inches in diameter fitted with a light motor which is connected to the rear wheel of the bicycle. An ingenious pivoting



A POWER ATTACHMENT FOR BICYCLES.

arrangement makes the wheel a peculiar lateral and vertical movement, so that the steering of the machine is in no way affected and permits the wheel to glide over obstacles or rough ground without transmitting any shock or vibration to the rider.

The motor is a small air-cooled, horizontal, two-stroke engine with a specially designed hub to which the power is transmitted through a six to one reducing gear. The magneto ignition and vaporizer are mounted on the same plane, and in line with the engine, so that the whole is rendered very compact.

The engine is valveless, the inlet and exhaust being governed by ports, alternately covered and uncovered by the piston. It develops 1½ horse-power.

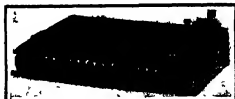
To attach the motor wheel to the ordinary cycle, it is only necessary to remove the nut of the back wheel spindle on the chain side of the machine, and to attach the frame of the auxiliary wheel to the spindle and bolt it up—an operation occupying a few moments. A single-lever regulator controlling the motor is clipped to the handle bar, the connection with the motor mechanism being a flexible wire. This single lever controls the action of the engine to a nicety.

The wheel complete weighs only 35 pounds, and the motor is capable of driving the bicycle at an average speed of 16 miles per hour on an ordinary road, with a maximum speed of about 18 miles on the level. The fuel tank in the mud guard is of sufficient capacity to carry the motor 100 miles.

## A NOVEL HIGH-POTENTIAL PRIMARY BATTERY.

A new and ingenious high potential primary battery, the purpose of which is to supply electric charges at known potentials, was recently exhibited before the English Physical Society. The positive element of each cell consists of a small carbon rod, while a strip of pure zinc comprises the negative element, the electrolyte being a solution of calcium chloride.

The connected ends of the elements, which are mounted in parallel rows of 20, are buried in paraffin.



A HYDROGENOUS KINO-POTENTIAL BATTERY.



BATTERY INVENTED TO KNOW THE KINO AND CARBON ELEMENTS.

Contact between the free carbon and the zinc elements is just broken by a small pellet of paraffin, and the liquid is retained between them by capillarity.

The electrolyte comprises a saturated solution of calcium chloride which has been exposed to the air. In hydrolysis it will absorb water until a certain equilibrium strength is obtained, this factor depending on the humidity of the air and the temperature. The electromotive force of each cell differs from one volt by only two or three per cent if exposed to very different conditions of temperature and humidity, but it has been kept steady to within 0.1 per cent for two or three consecutive days.

In conjunction with an electrostatic voltmeter, the battery is very convenient for the following purpose: In all experiments involving the use of a quadrant voltmeter, as the needle can be charged to any desired voltage up to 1,000 volts, since the battery is so designed that one or any number of elements can be taken, for the comparison and calibration of electrostatic voltmeters, for the comparison of capacities, and for the measurement of high resistances by the method of discharging a condenser through them and noting the time taken.

## DETECTORS FOR FIRE-ALARM BOXES.

The problem of so designing a fire alarm box that it can be opened and operated by any one in an emergency and yet tend to prevent the sounding of false alarms, is one that has engaged the attention of inventors for many years. A very ingenious solution of the problem is presented in the accompanying illustrations. The alarm box is closed by a cover which has to be raised as shown in one of the illustrations to permit the operator to insert his hand through an opening and release the alarm mechanism. At the moment of the release a handoff closes over the wrist of the operator, as illustrated in another photograph. The handoff is not chained to the alarm box; for this would make a prisoner of the operator of the alarm, whose services might be badly needed at the fire. Instead, however, the handoff



The alarm box closed.

Operating the alarm.

The operator's handoff.

## DETECTORS FOR FIRE-ALARM BOXES.

serve merely for identification. It is made of such form that it cannot be concealed under the coat sleeve and it betrays the sound of the alarm to the general public, and is an honor to a man unless the alarm is a false one. Not until the fire chief has arrived with a special key to fit the handoff may the device be removed. This system is also applicable to boxes which are locked. It frequently happens in such cases that the keys are lost or that it is impossible to determine who sounded the alarm even when it is known whose key is missing.

## CAPING MILK BOTTLES BY MACHINE.

Great precautions must be taken in handling milk than any other form of food, because it is such an excellent medium for breeding germs. Hand work is always objectionable because of possible contamination of the milk by the fingers. Harvesters milk bottles have commonly been capped by hand. Now a simple machine has been invented for doing this work which



A MACHINE FOR CAPPING PURE MILK BOTTLES AT A TIME.

should be of value to small as well as large dealers. The machine consists of a magazine and a means of taking one cap at a time from the magazine and pressing it firmly into place on the top of the milk bottle. It not only adds to cleanliness in dairies, but saves time, inasmuch as it is many times more rapid in the operation of capping bottles than the human



PORTABLE BOTTLE-CAPPING MACHINE.

hands. One type is portable and is operated by a quick squeeze of the handle. The other type consists of a battery of vapors which will operate to cap a number of bottles at once. The magazine takes the caps in packages from the machine which made them and obviates the necessity of handling the cap itself.

## UMBRELLA SHELTER FOR AUTOMOBILES.

It is impossible to enter a vehicle on a very rainy day without getting wet, because the umbrellas must

be lowered before one can step inside. Surely it is just as necessary to provide vehicles with some sort of a shelter, such as the awning of a store or the marquee of a public building. However, anything projecting from the side of a vehicle would be objectionable. The difficulty is surmounted quite cleverly in the automobile, which is illustrated in the accompanying engraving. A collapsible awning is attached to the top of the automobile, and also to the top of the door, so that when the door is opened it can add the passenger or to allow a passenger to alight, the awning will open and protect him from the rain while he is raising or lowering his umbrella. When the door is closed, the awning shuts up like a fan.



UMBRELLA SHELTER FOR AUTOMOBILES.



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**"Star" Lathe**  
FOR FINE, ACCURATE WORK  
FOR FINE, ACCURATE WORK  
FOR FINE, ACCURATE WORK  
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**A TIED IN THE LATEST BALLOON.**  
(Continued from page 265.)  
thing else was a midsummer night's dream. It was only by an effort of reason, not turned to account to a powerful ally, we distinguished animals in motion, that we realized the home of seven hundred thousand souls to be other than a microscopically beautiful

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**Engine and Foot Lathes**  
REPAIRING SHOP, TOOLS, AND  
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**Aeroplanes and Motors**  
We are looking for acceptance of the motor  
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"When nearly above the office of the inquirer, we celebrated this occasion by firing our bullet and shooting upward, not to turn to account to a powerful ally, we distinguished animals in motion, that we realized the home of seven hundred thousand souls to be other than a microscopically beautiful

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**Wireless Telegraphy—ITS PRO**  
We are looking for acceptance of the motor  
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We are looking for acceptance of the motor

"Indeed, one of our fellow voyagers insisted upon it that he observed the motions of the fish. Certain it was that the ripple of the flying steamers was most marked, and then we turned to the shipping. Having taken a particular squint at the island of Smith, and the still more celebrated Tinian, we reached the Jersey side at five minutes past six, observing that the Jersey side was a current took us more directly toward the east, and we for half an hour or more followed closely the Camden and Atlantic Railroad, which could only be distinguished from the tarpaper by the aid of a glass. In the moving panorama, the fertile fields of East Jersey formed a most beautiful picture with the Hudson and Co's Creek winding snakelike through were oblong immensities, distinguished only by the different colors of wheat, grooved corn, and other crops of peace and plenty. Toward the ocean, a bank of cumulus clouds rose, and in the west the city was growing, observed over Manhattan, the great Long-coming and Waterford, then began to go much higher and faster, having passed right through a heavy cloud beneath us stretched above the Atlantic plains forest, with the white sand sparkling here and there in tiny patches. We were at this time at the highest altitude attained during the trip, about three miles, and moving to the east at the rate of at least sixty miles an hour. Here the earth's surface, instead of concave, a phenomenon often observed and accounted for, but none the less curious, and the spirits of the party became almost as high as the barometric location of their bodies. We individually got up the ladder into the hoop and floated on stinging waves, which, owing to the rarefaction of the air and the orb from the balloon, had quite a stentorian effect. At this point, as we were far above the smoky haze surrounding the earth, and also the region of clouds, the sky looked more beautifully blue and vivid than can be conceived. The moon was almost as bright as it is usually at night, and the sun, which was not so cold as the poor people below, gave to the few clouds lost to us a hazy, hazy appearance.

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**Family Car**  
In 3 months time supplying a family of 4 persons with a car in 3 months time

**INVINCIBLE SCHACHT THREE PURPOSE CAR**  
Each three times as much as for the car as the owner of any other machine. Yet to pay no more than many others for cars which for any one of the three purposes for which the Schacht car can be used and not in satisfactory is an ideal car for business and pleasure—having only one, the style, the quality that will appeal to you. You use it as you please to strengthen the 1910 revolution in automobile construction and value before you buy a motor car.

"Although it was above the aeronauts' intention to reach the ocean, which now was visible, the mile on it being seen by the balloon, was not so cold as the poor people below, gave to the few clouds lost to us a hazy, hazy appearance.

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**Delivery Car**  
Carrying the Schacht into a light delivery car in 3 months time

**THE SCHACHT MFG. CO.**  
2700 Spring Grove Avenue, CINCINNATI, O.

"Although it was above the aeronauts' intention to reach the ocean, which now was visible, the mile on it being seen by the balloon, was not so cold as the poor people below, gave to the few clouds lost to us a hazy, hazy appearance.

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**AMERICAN HOMES AND GARDENS**  
CONTENTS FOR APRIL, 1910

**AMERICAN HOMES AND GARDENS**  
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(Continued on page 267)

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# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

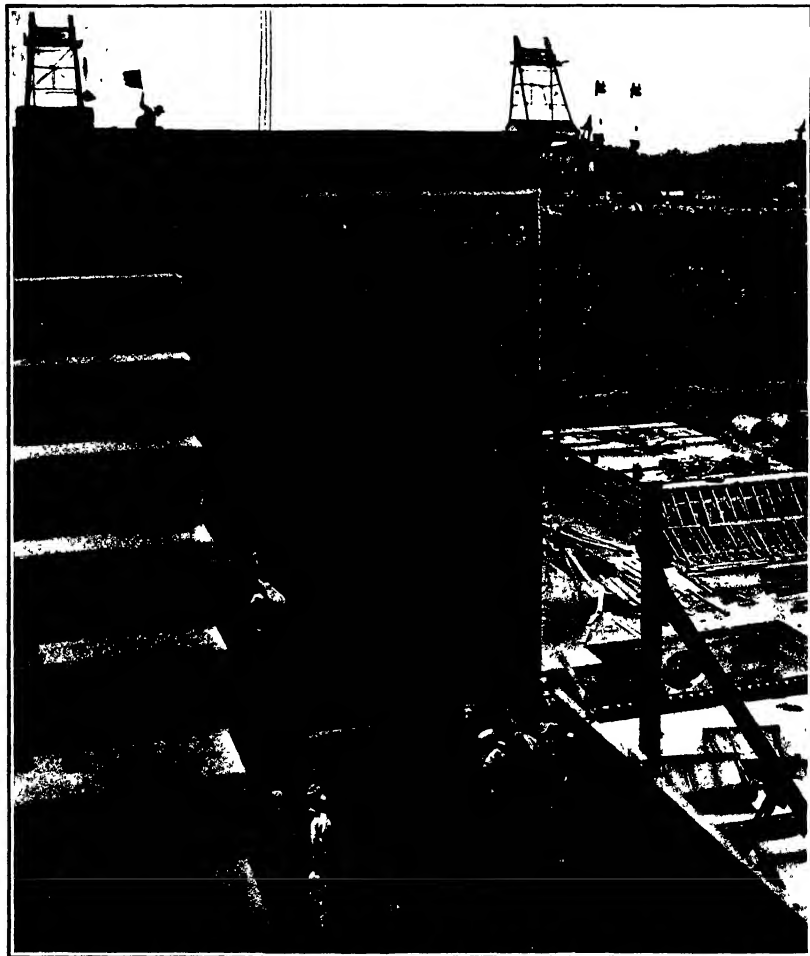
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A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS

Vol. LXX—No. 14.  
Published 1910

NEW YORK, APRIL 2 1910

10 CENTS  
\$5.00 A YEAR



The side walls, 200 feet long, are built in sections between plate steel forms. To the right of the rampart wall is seen the interior face of a steel form with the form for the end of the section upon which the men are at work standing temporarily. In the picture show formed the same are appearing and standing the water courses.

BUILDING THE RIVER WALLS, 60 FEET THICK AND 66 FEET HIGH, OF THE GATUN LOCKS AT PANAMA.—[See page 279]



## ENGINEERING.

The Atlantic record has been broken, this time by the "Mauretania," which reduced the long Atlantic course of 2,889 miles by 35 minutes, making the passage from Danut's Rock to the Ambassador Lightship in 4 days, 15 hours, and 29 minutes at an average speed of 35.91 knots.

The great value of the steel car as a protection to passengers in the event of collision was demonstrated in the recent crash of two trains in the Hudson tunnel. There was no such telescoping as would probably have occurred with wooden cars, and the injuries were merely such as resulted from the passengers being thrown down by the shock of the collision.

*Arcticus* larus of Casler's, states editorially that the first British steamboat was not Bell's "Comet," which sailed to the Clyde in 1811, but the "Accommodation," which commenced running between Quebec and Montreal on the St. Lawrence River on November 5th, 1809, or two years after the "Clermont" made her maiden run from New York to Albany. The first steamers on the Lakes were the "Ontario" and the "Frontenac," which appeared in 1816.

A French naval constructor, basing his deductions on the recent French maneuvers, believes that the future submarine will be a "submersible destroyer" of 30 knots surface and 15 knots submerged speed, of sufficient radius of action to accompany the main fleet on long cruises. He believes that the greater the radius of action and the higher the submerged speed, the better will such a vessel approximate a perfect underwater instrument of offense and defense.

Some tests of the effect of superheating recently made on the American yacht "Dallas" show striking results. When using saturated steam, the consumption of water per indicated horse-power was 13.38 pounds. This was reduced to 17 pounds, with 87 degrees of superheat, 15.8 pounds, with 96 degrees, and to 14.6 pounds, with steam at 106 degrees superheat, a saving of 15.3 per cent of steam, a result very remarkable showing. The trial with saturated steam was of two and one-quarter hours duration, and the test at 106 degrees superheat was of one and one-half hours. The test lasted for three hours.

A report of the Public Service Commission, relating to the delays of passenger trains in New York State during December, shows that 60,385 trains were run of which 78 per cent were on time at division terminations. The average delay for each train was 19 1/2 minutes and the proportional causes of delay were: Waiting for trains on other divisions, 40.9 per cent, waiting for train connections with other roads, 14.4 per cent, train work at stations, 12.2 per cent, trains ahead, 8 per cent, meeting and passing trains, 4.8 per cent, engine failures, 4.3 per cent, train wrecks, 3.8 per cent.

An experiment which is being tried on the Hudson and Manhattan Railroad tunnel system beneath the Hudson River will be watched with much interest by both the railroads and the public. It consists in illuminated station signs, placed inside the cars, which are so arranged that the guard by pressing a button when the train starts, rings a bell and causes the sign to display the name of the next station. This sign continues to be displayed until the train leaves the station designated. A simple device this, whose utility is so obvious, that it should have been in use from the very commencement of electrically-operated transit tunnels.

A committee of engineers and scientists is making an intensive study of the causes of the recent flood in Paris, preparatory to devising a system of protection which will absolutely prevent any recurrence of the disaster. The main work of the commission will be to devise a plan for keeping the river-beds within its banks either by the construction of higher embankments or by the provision of a by-pass channel to carry the surplus waters around the city at the same time the commission is studying the causes of the public works including surface and subway lines and the sewer, gas, electricity telegraph, and telephone systems which were affected by the inundation, with the object of remedying the defects which were developed during the flood.

The work of providing adequate coast fortifications has been carried to the point at which they may now be considered to be very complete, at least as far as the guns and emplacements are concerned. The full efficiency of these fortifications cannot be realized, however, because of the lack of proper submarine mines and minefields. The Navy is now installing submarine mines and guns already installed, such as fire control apparatus, searchlights, power plants, and adequate ammunition. The Chief of Coast Artillery says: "Without these necessities the \$78,000,000 already expended would be wasted, since the guns would be of no more value in the defense of the shore in which they are mounted than no money at all." To make this provision will require about \$10,000,000.

**ELECTRICITY.**

As the Glidden tour this year will pass through territory where the telephone and telegraph service is very poor, it has been decided to equip the cars with wireless telegraph apparatus. This will make it possible to keep in close touch with the contestants, and the latter will be able to report accidents and call for help when necessary.

In plants which use a gas engine to drive their generators the variations in speed of the engines are not noticeable if carbon filament lamps are used, because the filament is quite thick and does not respond quickly enough to show any fluctuations in light. With tungsten filaments the light waverings are very annoying, and gas-engine manufacturers have found it necessary to equip their engines with heavier flywheels.

A convenient method of determining variations in the candle-power of a lamp was described in a recent number of *Elektrotechnische Zeitschrift*. A selenium cell is employed, which is exposed to the lamp under test and is placed in series with a recording millimeter. The curve recorded by the millimeter, which is due to the variable resistances of the selenium cell, indicates the variation of the candle-power of the lamp. To be sure, this does not give an accurate photometric measurement.

A large section of land has been bought by the Commonwealth Edison Company in the northwestern part of Chicago, where two large generating stations are to be built. Each station will be equipped with six turbines and in the first station the capacity of each turbine will be 30,000 horse-power. It is expected that within two years 60,000 horse-power will be in operation. These stations are made necessary by the fact that the output of the company has doubled every three years for the last twelve years.

Chicago is trying a new car designed to remove debris from city garages over the street railways at night. The car is of steel construction, 14 feet long divided into three sections which are so shaped that they can be dumped with a pole by a single man thus doing away with the necessity of using air cylinders or other mechanical dumping apparatus. The sections are made watertight, so that there will be no leakage of water. The car is not provided with motors and is intended to use the car in the daytime for hauling concrete and construction materials.

A novel method of recovering a sunken cargo has been adopted by the United States River Company. A large magnet, 2½ feet in diameter and weighing 1,000 pounds, has been employed in raising kgs. of nails from a barge that was sunk in the Mississippi River near New Orleans. The magnet raised five or six kegs at a time, or about a ton at each lift. The advantage of this method was that it avoided breaking open the kegs as would have been the case had a dredge been used. The magnet is soon to be used for raising a sunken load of woven wire, and also for a load of steel balling strips.

Several years ago the Illinois traction system decided to use sleeping cars between Springfield and East St. Louis. As this system has proved a success, several more cars have been ordered for use between St. Louis and Peoria. These cars will differ from the first ones in having no motor equipment. They will be trailers and it is expected that a good deal of the annoying vibration of the first cars will thus be overcome. The cars will be 54 feet long and will be provided with ten upper and ten lower berths. It is believed that this system may compete with through sleeping car service, but it is too early to say. One does not care how fast he travels provided he can sleep comfortably and find himself at his destination when he wakes up in the morning.

The following subjects will be taken up at the International Congress of Telephone and Telegraph Engineers, which is to meet at Paris this year:

- (1) Manual versus automatic systems of telephone working
- (2) Simplification of telephone circuits
- (3) The use of frequency modulation in telephony (for purposes of theoretical investigation)

with a view to facilitating the approach of the telephone current to the sine wave-form.

- (4) The circumstances conditioning the adaptability of telephone apparatus to the transmission of music
- (5) Protection to be afforded by means of relays for the avoidance of mutual disturbance in the case of power circuits running in close proximity to telegraph and telephone lines.
- (6) Telephony between places at great distances from each other
- (7) Construction of long distance cables
- (8) Transmission of speech signals by cable
- (9) Modern poles—new process for impregnation and preservation—and procedure described from actual practice as to laying and strutting
- (10) Party lines and selective calling upon telegraph and telephones
- (11) System of telephony for ships
- (12) Multiple type-printing telegraphs and the Mærcator system

## SCIENCE

Mr. H. H. Clayton, late of the Blue Hill Observatory, has gone to Buenos Ayres to organize kite and balloon observations under the direction of the Argentine Meteorological Service.

Knut Angström, professor of physics at the University of Uppsala, died March 4th. He was distinguished as an investigator of solar radiation, and devised the instrument adopted by international agreement as the standard for measuring this element, viz., the Angström electric compensation pyrheliometer.

The International Meteorological Committee, which assembles triennially, will hold its next sessions in Berlin during the last week of September 1910. Dr W. N. Shaw, director of the British Meteorological Office, is president of the committee and Prof Dr G. Hellmann, director of the Royal Prussian Meteorological Institute, secretary.

The standard Troy pound of the Philadelphia Mint was recently tested by the Bureau of Standards and found to be slightly over weight, because of the accumulation of oxide on the surface. The test was certified by the bureau officials in a report to the Director of the Mint. It was shown that when the weighing took place the temperature of the air was 22 deg C, the relative humidity was 60 per cent, the barometer was 754 millimeters the mean density of standard air was 842 at 22 deg C. The weight variation of the Troy pound was determined to be 0.007 of a grain or 0.00000045 of a pound. The error is within the "allowance," and is negligible. In the coining of \$100,000,000 the government would lose just \$121.63 as a result of the slight overweight.

[illegible]

At the invitation of the Rochester Chamber of Commerce and the Civic Improvement Committee of that city the conference of 1910 will be held at Rochester May 2nd to 4th. American cities are being aroused to a realization of the fact that the problem of the surplus population of tongue-tied population. Many cities have begun to plan to solve the problem. Some cities are getting them a few are following them out. Why it is imperative to adopt a city plan for the surplus population is a subject which is being discussed in the city plan news adopted can best be carried out. The purpose of the conference this year is not primarily to consider the surplus population problem, but to discuss the literature which makes up the already existing argument for the necessity of planning American cities but the conference is a gathering of experts in the field of city planning. The conference is specifically designed to make a concrete contribution to the science of city planning. Generalities will be avoided. The conference will be held in a room of moderate capacity. The aim will be to discuss the surplus population problem in a thoroughly rational manner. The conference will be held in a room of moderate capacity to wander through the wide field.

[illegible]

# A NEW TYPE OF TORPEDO BOAT

A DOUBLE-HULLED BOAT WITH ITS ENGINES ENTIRELY BELOW THE WATERLINE

A new type of war vessel provided for by Congress in the Naval Appropriation Act of last year will be officially tested by the United States government at Boston within a few days. It is known as the submarine torpedo boat and is designed to be immune from the small gun fire now relied upon as a protection against ordinary torpedo boats. It consists of a smartly built hull which contains all the machinery and torpedoes suspended from an unshakable iron keel divided into compartments packed with floats. Last year a law authorized the purchase of this boat when the official trial shows that it fills requirements and the construction under contract of two, thirty six of the same type. The boat has had a preliminary trial. Tans Lemoine & Co., the consulting architects, report that it easily makes 18 knots, thus exceeding the required speed by 2 knots.

Six tons is the weight of the vessel and its length is 44 feet. The price which the government has agreed to pay is \$23,500. The small size of the boat can either be used for coast defense or they can be arrived on board of the larger vessels in an armored fleet in time of a attack they can be launched and directed by day or night against the enemy's fleet particularly for operations against ships lying under the protection of land fortifications or mine fields where expensive battleships should not be risked as they were at Manila Santiago and Port Arthur.

In the submarine hull of the new type boat is an eight-cylinder gasoline engine of 100 horse-power. The explosive charge (carried for use on hostile vessels) is 1000 pounds of gun cotton. An armored conning tower on its surface hull communicating with the submarine hull enables the captain to receive air and control the boat's movements. Only two men are required on board.

It is estimated that a fleet of fifty of these submarine torpedo boats will cost about as much as two or three destroyers or submarines. As their cruising radius is 200 miles their principal function will probably be for the defense of ports and unguarded coast lines.

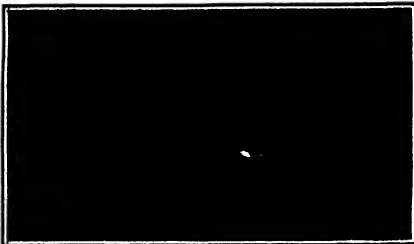
The submarine boat is to be operated in one of two ways. Either it may be stored within short torpedo range and aimed at its objective, the crew leaving it in lifeboats or buoy or it may be fitted with a submerged bow torpedo tube to discharge the ordinary 18-inch torpedo.

For the firing of the high explosive use is made of an electrical firing circuit which is actuated by a bow firing pin but which is kept open and safe by a switch in the conning tower until the boat is deserted. It is also provided to continue the firing circuit around the inner side of the upper hull below the water line so as to explode the charge if the boat should be rammed, and thus deter hostile boats from ramming. Also it is proposed to use on the outer sparking circuit a time switch which will automatically break the sparking circuit and stop the engine and boat if it misses its objective.

The total government appropriation for boats of this

type is \$445,000. When the first is approved the Navy Department is authorized to construct for two others one more of the same size and one larger and faster—a \$400,000 submarine seagoing destroyer.

A year or two ago the Assistant Secretary of the Navy recommended the building of a number of small motor torpedo boats of approximately the same size as this to be laid up on shore in peace time for occasional practice runs by the naval reserve and for use by them in case of hostilities. The boats proposed were to be of 17½ knots speed which is somewhat less



THE SUBMARINE TORPEDO BOAT ON ITS TRIAL TRIP

than has been achieved by the present submarine boat on its preliminary trials.

The Swedish motor torpedo boats built by Tarrow with Napier engines make about 18 knots. They are of about the same size as the vessel we are describing and are used for the same purpose. It would appear therefore that no speed has been lost by carrying the engines and torpedo below instead of within the hull of the boat. It is suggested that in view of the comparatively small expense several flotillas of these boats could be distributed along our coasts and held up with the engines gased in which condition the expense of maintenance would be very small.

There can be no doubt that all the navies of the world are just now directing special attention to submarine warfare and the trials of this boat which offer some decidedly valuable features in the great protection afforded both to the motive power and the high explosive will be watched with no little interest.

The general design of this very interesting craft is due to Clarence L. Burger O.E. of New York and the plans (calculations, etc.) were made by the Naval Architects Tans Lemoine & Co.

## The Oldest Attic Letter

A little leaden tablet, tarnished ugly and otherwise trivial in appearance, was sent a few years ago from Athens to the Imperial Museum of Berlin. On one side of it is some writing which only recently was deciphered with precise correctness by Adolf Wilhelm, an Austrian expert, who lives in Athens. The tablet is the original of a private letter that was written about the time of the orator Demosthenes.

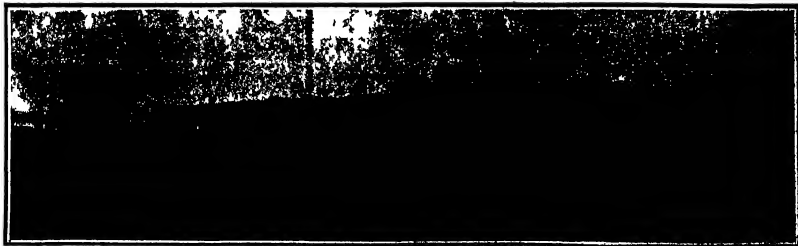
The writer of the letter lived in a rural neighborhood and wished to send a commercial order to a town

The form of the address was "To be taken to the poultry market and to be handed to Naxos, as the Thyrasites or to the son (perhaps the son of the writer was meant). The poultry market, to which the Attic countrymen had gone to offer their produce and where for sale may be imagined as in progress. Thus the boy who was bearer of the letter was to find the stand or booth of one of the three persons to whom it was addressed and deliver it to him. The text of the letter says: "Naxos, you cordially beg, greets your family with the same esteem and wishes them good health, and be sure also that his own health is good. Please be so kind as to send me a mantle either of sheepskin or of goatskin and let it be as cheap as possible for it does not need to be trimmed with fur. Send with it a pair of heavy shoes also. As soon as I have an opportunity I will pay you."

So much for the letter to the motive of which the reader can point with as much precision as the author. Apparently it was written in white, poor Minerva, having been unearthed in the open country by one of those key snowstorms which sometimes even at this day cover the temples of the Acropolis with a mantle of snow. Therefore he desired to receive as quickly as possible the heavy and warm garment of the poorer countrymen, a goatskin which could be bought for four and a half drachmas and the strong shoes which were worn under the ordinary sandals on the rural plains and hillsides. A good pair of the latter could be bought for four drachmas as a well preserved bill of that date shows.

A noteworthy feature of this attic letter is the formula with which it begins the very formula that may be found used in very numerous letters that were preserved by the Greek literature of later times. Even at the present day every letter written by a rural Greek begins with the same cordial inquiry about the health of the person to whom the letter is written and with brief information about the health of the writer.

Although it is possible to resolve into gas almost any kind of solid fuel is a gas producer. It is well known that certain fuels—particularly those high in ash and of a caking character—give a good deal of trouble. One of the most serious of these troubles states a contemporary is that the fuel welds itself into a large mass which partially chokes the fire in some places and causes passages or holes to be burnt at others. Hence poking of the fire is necessary and the poorer the fuel the more the poking. In order to reduce this poking to a minimum some producer makers fit shaking or revolving grates. The latest design of this character is due to Mr. Chapman an American and it is a considerable extension of the principle. The lower portion of the producer is divided into two or three rings which are free of each other and rotate at different speeds. The holes between them made by water seals. The object is to shake the fuel continuously so that caking or clogging and holes are equally impossible.



This type of gas producer is designed to shake the fuel and engine in a suspended state-changed ball which the entire body of the producer and therefore out of the range of the producer. The upper part, being filled with fuel, is carried to the water level. In rotating the ball would be driven at the center of the ball, and when it was within, shaking between the producer and the water level, the fuel would be shaken, shaking the producer and the water level, and the fuel would be shaken by the shaking motion of the ball.

NEW TYPE OF GAS PRODUCER FOR THE FURNACE



## BY FRANK C. PERKINS

An examination of the cuneiform text of the Nippur fragment and a comparison of this new version of



The interior of the interior of the earth. Recently during the last few years the structure and temperature of the interior of the earth have been an object of much and insistent discussion, and not a lesser result of it is the plan to bore a hole to the heart of the earth, by means of which may be investigated all the secrets of the globe, which as they succeed our modern knowledge of the earth indicate an increasing temperature in conformity to a law. Planners particularly have quickened this question very recently, and with it has bustled the fancy both of expert and of laymen, and the further study is important to the discussion, the gist of certain chapters of Dr. W. L. Meyer's book, "Bewohnbare Welten" (Inhabited Worlds), recently published, may be cited. It affords a most interesting estimate of the temperature of the crust of the earth and of the interior volume of our native planet. This research discloses that the varying temperature of the atmosphere exercises an influence on the temperature of the crust of the earth only to quite inconsiderable depths. Already at a distance of fifteen to twenty meters below the surface a uniform temperature of 4 deg. Celsius approximately has been ascertained, which prevails around the whole earth. With increasing depth the degree of heat is constant. This fact is called the geothermal degree of depth. In many holes that have been bored with much more frequency. Generally 1 deg. of increase of temperature per foot is indicated as often at 100 meters of greater depth are added. This result is due to the greater degree of compression that increases as the depth increases. In the thirty-two mile-wide part of the distance toward the center of the earth. Here at this depth a temperature of 50 deg. was ascertained. If this manner of calculation be continued for greater degrees of depth the immediate result is that already at 40 kilometers, approximately, the constituents of the crust of the earth are in fiery solution, and at 800 kilometers must be in the form of gas. The latest investigations conducted by Meyer himself as the result of his research of Tassman and others and of the results of experiments made to measure the speed of the progress of waves of seismic disturbance. The collective result leads to the conclusion that the real first crust of the earth cannot be specifically thicker than 100 kilometers. Among the phenomena sustaining this conclusion is the so-called magma which is occasionally expelled in a volcanic eruption, when nearer to the center of the earth it has the form of gas, but under such stupendous pressure that at the distance aforementioned the substance seems to have the appearance of water. It is assumed that the temperature of the center of the earth lies between 50,000 and 100,000 deg.

At this distance, Dr. Meyer seeks to satisfy the curiosity of the layman, with his statement of the question of heat that occurs between the earth and the sun; the store of heat, great beyond human computation, that streams forth over the geothermal degree of depth from the interior of the earth into and from the sun is so far counterbalanced by the heat imparted to the earth by the rays of the sun that no decrease of the mean temperature of the surface of the earth can be actually noted. It must be noted that the degree of heat on the temperature of the earth depends the most important processes of life, these are assured for an indefinite time at least.

#### An Eruption of Elmo.

On March 14 the Stettin volcano Elmo began to erupt. The lava united in a vast stream 54 feet high and 1,500 feet wide, and at the time of going to press was threatening the destruction of Bielefeld and Bielefeld.

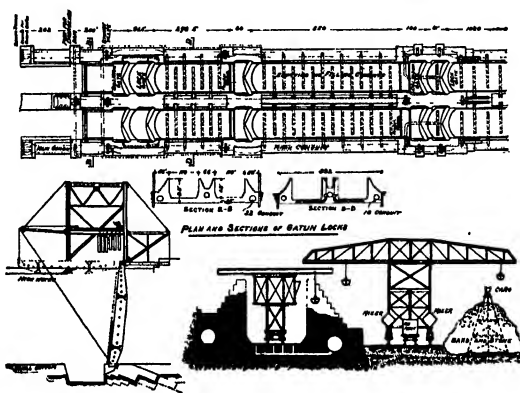
The lava devastated large tracts of cultivated lands, such as vineyards and orchards, and has wrought havoc in the woods. The village of Nideke near Elmo had been covered completely, and many trees and buildings had been destroyed.

#### BUILDING THE RIVER CONCRETE LOCKS AT GATUN, PANAMA.

SPECIAL APPLIANCES BY WHICH THIS WORK WOULD BE DONE. 400 FEET WIDE, 4,000 FEET LONG, AND 80 TO 100 FEET DEEP, IS CONSTRUCTED.

The work at Panama, and particularly at the great site of double locks at Gatun, has now reached a stage at which the camera is able to catch some adequate impression of the titanic proportions of the work and record it for the interest of the outside world. We have all understood that the scale upon which work was being done at Panama was impressive, but it remains for the accompanying pictures to teach us just how stupendous is the mass of masonry which is slowly taking shape near the Atlantic end of the canal.

The locks at Gatun will pass vessels up or down between sea level and the level of the lake which will be formed by the great Gatun dam immediately adjoining the locks. The total height of 85 feet will be covered in three flights of approximately 28 feet each. In order to provide ample accommodation for future increase in traffic, and also as a contingency against total displacement of the locks, they are being built in duplicate, as shown in the plans herewith presented. Each lock will be 110 feet wide, and will have a usable length of 1,000 feet. To provide against the carrying away of piles and the consequent rush of water out of the lake the former will be built in



#### BUILDING THE RIVER CONCRETE LOCKS AT GATUN, PANAMA.

duplicate, with a considerable space of water between them, so that if a slide, overrunning, should strike the first gate, the second will remain intact. Also, at the entrance to the upper lock, there will be a huge steel barrier gate, in the event of a slide being carried away, can be swung across the lock entrance, and a series of horizontal, vertically sliding steel gates lowered down from the bridge, thus effectively shutting off the flow of water. Heavy finger chains will also protect the gates by preventing the first shock of a collision and thus, partially if not altogether, absorbing the momentum.

But the present story is concerned with the methods which have been adopted for building this huge monolithic, or unjointed, mass of artificial masonry, into the construction of which will enter about four million cubic yards of concrete. In general, the locks may be described as consisting of a floor, 400 feet in thickness, and of 30 feet maximum thickness, of two side walls, 50 feet in thickness at their lower part, and of a central dividing wall, 60 feet thick (see diagrams). The clear height of these walls from the floor of the lock to the coping is 86 to 90 feet. The inner faces forming the sides of the lock are vertical. The outer faces are built on an incline and are stepped, the horizontal thickness increasing with the depth of water in order to resist the lateral pressures. For emptying and filling the locks a series of transverse culverts, formed in the floor, lead to large longitudinal culverts in the base of the walls (Figs. 1 and 2), the latter ranging in diameter from a min-

imum of 18 to a maximum of 28 feet, the size varying according to the number of side culverts that are served. Now it can readily be understood that the cost of a work of this kind and scale, as the building of 4,000,000 cubic yards of material, depends very largely upon the amount of labor involved. For in works of this character the cost of labor is the principal item, and hence much care has been devoted to the design of the appliances for handling the concrete and the huge forms (temporary lining walls) within which the concrete is deposited. At the Gatun locks the sand and stone are hauled from cars in a stock pile running parallel with the lock site. On either bank above the huge excavation in which the locks are being built are a series of lofty steel towers (see front page and Figs. 2 and 3), between which are strung heavy, steel cables, by which the buckets containing the materials are transported. The concrete is picked up by these cables run over the excavation and lowered at the desired point.

The first part of the concrete work consisted in the laying of the huge slab of concrete, 392 feet wide and nearly 4,000 feet long, with a maximum thickness of 30 feet, which forms the floor of the locks. During the construction of this floor, care was taken to provide circular transverse conduits with vertical openings through the floor which led alternately to opposite side walls, there to be connected by longitudinal, emptying and filling conduits. The next task was to erect the side walls, and it is this important work which is shown so clearly in the accompanying illustration.

The walls are built in sections, each of which is about 40 feet wide, with a space of about 30 feet between them. The wall is then completed by filling in the intervening vertical gaps. It is well understood that one of the most onerous elements in concrete construction is the building and maintenance of the forms in which the concrete is set. The smaller structures there are constructed of timber, but because of the huge amount that would be required and the big depreciation in the value of the timber after use this material was altogether out of the question. The plan adopted in the work shown clearly in our illustrations. The forms are built entirely of steel (Figs. 2, 4 and 5). Those for the inner vertical faces of the walls consist of a series of massive steel towers of a triangular cross-section, to the vertical face of each of which is a wall of steel plating, stiffened by horizontal channel irons. The towers are carried upon four 40-ton trucks, two under the front and two under the rear face, which run on rails laid on the floor of the lock and parallel with its longitudinal axis. The rear face of the walls, which is stepped, closed by a series of separate rectangular forms measuring about 6 feet on the vertical and 4 feet on the horizontal face. The ends of each wall section are closed by means of steel plates supported against vertical movable framework. Into the pocket so thus formed the concrete is dumped and tamped down. The overhead cable, and tamped into place by the laborer, until the full 6 feet of height corresponding to the height of the rear stepping is completed. The walls are thus carried up on the vertical and 4 feet on the horizontal face. The walls have reached their full height. This work is very clearly shown in the front page engraving, where a ship is shown as having just delivered its load and the laborer are spreading and tamping the concrete under hydraulic or air pressure or under the racking strains of an earthquake shock.

A most interesting piece of steel work is that

A most interesting piece of steel work is that

for forming the 18 to 22 foot conduits in the side walls. It consists of a flexible steel pipe (Fig. 1) heavily braided to resist deformation, which has a longitudinal hinge at the top and at the bottom is provided with heavy left and right screws by which the form is kept to its full dimension during the laying and setting of the concrete. To remove the forms, the screws are turned and the bottom edges of the form are drawn together thus reducing the diameter and allowing the form to be drawn clear of the conduit.

A most interesting picture is Fig. 2 showing the work at the entrance to the locks from Gatun dam. To the right is seen the rear slopping of the eastern

wall of the eastern lock. The circular timber work shows the position of the upper end of the first lock. Just beyond this are two sections of the steel forms for the main central conduit by which water will be led from the lake to the upper lock. Just beyond the wall which extends across the picture to the right-hand bank will be located the emergency dam above referred to, and beyond that will extend the three piers which will form the lock entrance from the lake. The embankment which will be seen running out as an extension of the natural bank to the right of the picture is the rock fill forming the southerly toe of the great Gatun dam, which extends to the right across the valley to a junction with the

distant hills. The lake of water seen to the right of the rock embankment is formed by the bridge-like dredges which are being used in making the Gatun dam. Half a mile to the north, also extending across the valley from the northerly end of the locks, is a similar rock fill, and huge dredges are now engaged in pumping silt and water from the Chagres, and from the various contiguous channels, into the big basin half a mile wide and over a mile long thus formed. The water drains off through the rock fill, leaving the fine silt in a firmly compressed, impermeable mass, which is so dense that it will be impossible for the waters of the lake ever to seep through.

If the reader have sufficient imagination he can, by



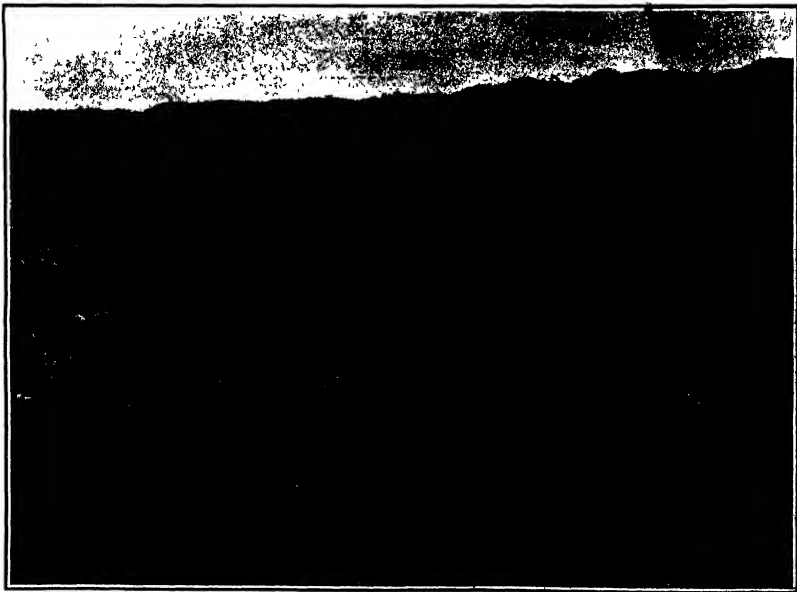
The conduits are formed in the body of the side and center walls. The forms consist of cut lengths steel cylinders, hinged at the top and at the bottom and kept in place by big right and left screws. The latter are loosened when the concrete has set, allowing the two halves of the cylinder to swing inward and be withdrawn.

Fig. 1—An 18-foot conduit, for emptying and filling the locks.



Looking into the middle lock entrance from the east bank. To the left, section of side wall with forms just in place. In center of excavation, the middle wall is being built in sections. To the right is a side wall section showing the movable form in place and a section of the track upon which it is transported.

Fig. 2—General view of middle lock.



In foreground is the timber form for upper end of upper lock. In center of stepped wall are the steel forms for conduit for filling the locks. Beyond the wall will be the emergency dam and the entrance piers, which will extend several feet into Lake Gatun. To the right is the rock fill which forms the southern toe of the Gatun dam. South of it are the water and silt, which have been pumped up from the Chagres to form the main body of the dam.

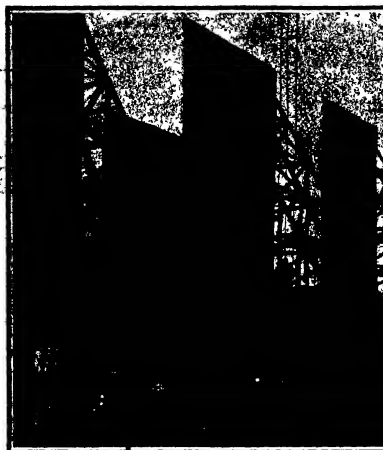
Fig. 3—General view of south end of Gatun locks.

BUILDING THE NINE COVENANT LOCKS AT GATUN, PANAMA.

looking at this picture, fairly depict the scene as it will appear when the canal is completed, supposing, of course, the side wall were broken away to give him an unobstructed view. To the right the bank will be shut off by the walls of the lock structure, and to the left he will see the three concrete piers extending far out into a vast lake of water which will cover all the space now occupied by tracks, telegraph lines and embankments, and will extend in an unbroken surface until it reaches the hills in the far distance.

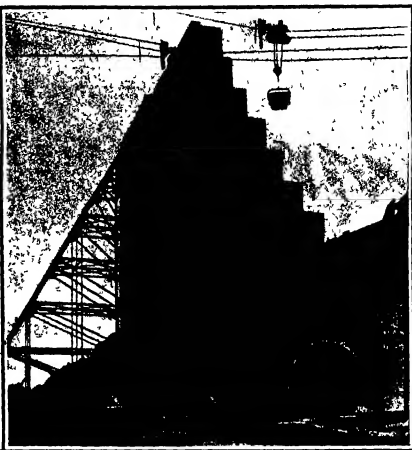
**Efficiency of Steam Turbine Nozzles.**  
Some experiments upon steam turbine nozzles, expanding steam from ordinary boiler pressures to condenser pressures, are described in a paper presented to the American Society of Mechanical Engineers by Prof. Hibley and T. H. Kemble. The main results are worth noting, and confirm the claims made for the efficiency of nozzles by turbine makers. Efficiencies of from 90 to 95 per cent were regularly obtained. The actual discharge from the nozzles,

stated as a percentage of the theoretical discharge, was of the same order as the efficiencies. Most interesting, however, was the apparent lack of influence exerted by the form of the nozzle, even when this might have been expected to be considerable, as, for instance, when the section changed from circular at the neck to square at the discharge, or when a central nozzle protruded into the nozzle from the inlet end. Smoothness of surface was, however, an important factor.



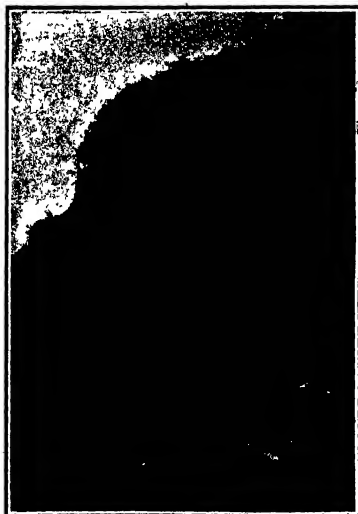
These portable forms, consisting of vertical plate steel walls carried on ironed steel wheels, are each mounted upon four four wheel trucks, and run upon two lines of double track, extending the full length of lock.

Fig. 4.—Steel forms in place for building center wall.



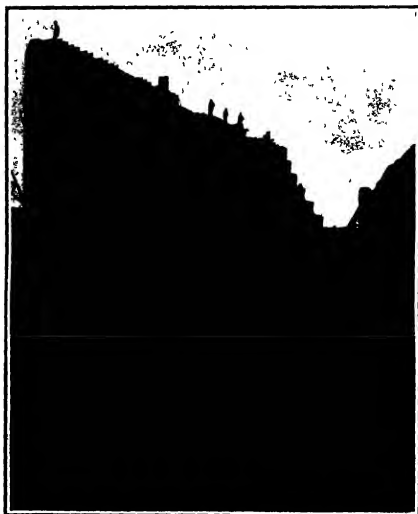
This is a completed section of the middle lock's side wall. It is 30 feet wide by 27 feet high. In the base is one of the main filling and emptying conduits. The vertical reverses are in metal in laying the sections together.

Fig. 5.—A completed section of side wall.



This wall, carried down everywhere to solid rock, will serve to prevent escape of water through the concrete dam.

Fig. 6.—Portion of concrete core wall, Miraflores dam.



The gaps will be filled with concrete, kept and cemented firmly in place, thus providing a continuous monolithic wall. The steel angle plate forms are already set up across the further gap.

Fig. 7.—Sections of easterly side wall, upper lock.

BUILDING THE THREE GIGANTIC LOCKS AT GATUN, PANAMA.



## NOVEL CHANGEABLE PHOTOGRAPHS

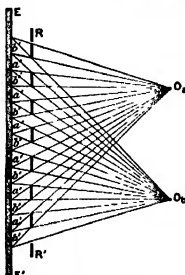
BY E. HONORE

Prof. Lippmann recently described before the Academy of Sciences at Paris some novel changeable photographs made according to a method devised by M. Bataille, secretary of the Faculty of Sciences of Marneville.

M. Estanave produced a dia-positive on glass of a sleeping woman. By inclining the picture a few millimeters and rocking it slightly, the eyes apparently open like the eyes of a porcelain doll, with the exact result, however, that the entire face lives up in a most extraordinary manner. The picture is held back and the eyes slowly close again. The photograph when reproduced for publication in a paper such as the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN unfortunately cannot be used to obtain the effect because of the necessity of employing a special half-tone screen.

In order to explain how M. Eizawa obtains his picture, let us consider two different photographs: the one D representing a sleeping woman, the other E the same woman awake. Each photographic positive is ruled horizontally from top to bottom, so that on both photographs appear finely banded if we read from the positive D even alternate pairs of bands, and from the positive E odd alternate pairs of bands, and if we place upon the positive D the bands taken from E and upon E the bands taken from D, we will obtain two new pictures which we may designate D' and E'. These new pictures D' and E' are composites of D and E. If the bands are narrow enough, 30 per centimeter, for example, their

strips of  $E^3$  without disturbing their order. We obtain still another positive  $D^3$ , formed by the combination of the two preceding positives. When looked



### MODIFIED FORM OF THE DISCOVERY.

but directly the new positive  $P'$  is rather confused, but when looked at through a glass plate ruled alternately with horizontal opaque and transparent bands of a width equal to those constituting the positive itself quite a different effect is obtained. If we hold this glass screen in such a manner that the opaque bands are parallel to the bands of the positive  $P$ , we see only the bands of the positive  $P$ , and we will obtain the portrait of a sleeping woman. On the other hand, if the screen be slightly shifted so that the bands of the positive  $P'$  are covered we will have a portrait of a woman wide awake. Since the different effects obtained simply by shifting the screen, the single photographs being shown brought to the cause to which they appear to be connected simply by changing the speed of the screen movements.

In actual practice the ruling of the positives and the transposition of the bands, as well as the use of a suitable screen, is attended with considerable difficulty. For that reason, M Estanave has devised a simpler method which is illustrated in the accompanying diagram.

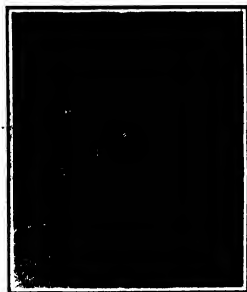
Let  $a$  and  $b$  be two different objects the luminous rays from which fall upon a sensitive plate or a ground glass  $NS$  in the path of these rays at a suitable distance, the horizontal ruled screen  $RS'$  is placed in the diagram the spaces separating the lines of the screen are considerably exaggerated and the screen itself is shown in vertical section. Such is the position of the screen that the sensitive plate will receive a series of images of  $a'$  alternating with images of  $b'$ .

In making the positive photograph according to this method, the subject is first placed at *Oa* and then at *Ob*. At *Oa* the subject must appear asleep, and at *Ob* wide awake. A composite picture will be obtained on the sensitive plate. If this picture be examined

through a screen similar to that by means of which the picture was made, and the visual angle be varied either by shifting the eye or shifting the screen the portrait will apparently open and close its eyes.

Theoretically, several different pictures can thus be superimposed on each other. Clearly, M. Matsuo has combined those which are directly in the foreground, thus limit to the number of pictures that can be thus be combined for the positives become more and more incomplete as the film runs composing them are more and more elongated. In the case of two aspects, the elements of an image are adjacent, the one to the other. With three aspects, the consecutive elements of an image are separated by two elements belonging respectively to each of the two other images, and so on.

In order to simplify the adjustment of the screen relatively to the composite image, and in fact to avoid adjustment entirely, M. Estanave employs an improved auto-stereoscopic plate which he has invented. This plate is ruled with a screen on the side which is not emulsified, the rulings being such that alternate opaque and transparent bands are produced. The new invention of M. Estanave's is so conceived that the plate serves a double purpose. The plate is mounted with the ruled surface in front, or it can be so placed that the ruled surface is either horizontal or vertical. When the ruled surface is placed horizontally (changeable photographs are obtained) with the rulings vertically placed images can



## THE SLEEPING WOMAN

discontinuity will not be noticed. The composite pictures will apparently be complete and comparable with the half-tone pictures to be found in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN or in any other modern illustrated periodical.

Let us now combine the two composites  $D'$  and  $K'$  in other words, let us transpose strings of  $D'$  and



**THE WAKING WOMAN**

be obtained directly visible to the eye with a stereoscopic effect. With two stereoscopic lenses mounted so as to obtain filliform images formed by the superposition of the two images of the object taken under the same aspect, the vertical lines of the screen select for each eye the particular image of the stereoscopic couple which are intended for it.

### Boiler-Feed-Pump Installation

At a very early period repeated efforts were made to replace mother's milk, so expensive at times, by some substance possessing the same valuable properties. The first attempts were made by the use of milk of the goat, but the results were so unsatisfactory that the expectations which were entertained, and these attempts were, therefore, gradually entirely abandoned. Recently attention has again been directed to this subject, and it has been found that milk obtained from the goat is better adapted than that of the cow for infantile nutrition. In chemistry and applied science afforded new grounds for hoping for more favorable results. And, in fact, some of the limitations of mother's milk now known have been removed, and the preparation of artificial milk has become a science. It is true that hitherto but few detailed directions for making artificial mother-of-milk have appeared in technical literature, for the theoretical and practical aspects of the subject have been almost entirely neglected. The few papers and pamphlets which have for the most part been kept so carefully secret, but a careful study of international patent literature shows that there are now various processes for making artificial milk. It is at once obvious that imitations such as chocolate stamped into milk-cake form, or Colongo cake saturated with albuminiferous oil will never gain a footing as good substitutes for mother's milk. The only artificial milk which will ever be able to take the place of mother's milk is one which contains all the elements of mother's milk, and which is adapted to the same uses.

as an equivalent. The purpose to which artificial mother-of-pearl is applied determines the degree of its efficiency as a substitute, and this degree of efficiency in its turn depends mainly on the external resemblance to the natural product. For combs, hair pins, beads, etc., celluloid mother-of-pearl may be used without hesitation as an imitation, for ornaments, on the other hand, such as fastening pins, buckles, etc., the preference will naturally be given to substances whose external resemblance to the genuine material is complete or nearly so. Special interest, therefore, attaches to a new method of preparing artificial mother-of-pearl, which we proceed to describe in detail.

The saccharified fact that colloidion, mixed with carbon blauphaid and a few parts of pearl-silver fluid, yielded a substance more or less resembling mother-of-pearl, led to a method of working directly with cellulose solutions, and in this way the celluloid mother-of-pearl already mentioned was obtained a material which has been used for a variety of purposes in the industrial art. As, however, the inflammability of celluloid considerably restricted the employment of this new material, efforts were made to replace celluloid by another substance. This substance was cellulite. The process of preparing artificial mother-of-pearl from this base is as follows: 100 parts of cellulite dissolved in 20 to 30 parts of diethyl ester

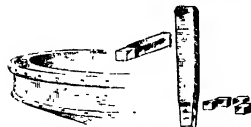
and chlorotomum are mixed with 20 parts of water and 10 parts of magnesia and 40 parts of port wine, with constant stirring in this way a few drops of Rose Water may be added. If the air is a few drops of carbon monophosphate added to the liquid solution a beautiful iridescent color is produced. It is advisable to prepare the solution slowly and to keep it in the refrigerator. The process of dissolving the pearls beforehand in case of need, the process of dissolving the pearls may be somewhat accelerated by soaking in hot water. The pearls preserve the appearance of polished mother-of-pearl and are not so brittle and in addition it is distinguished by great ductility and softness. The treatment of the pearls with the very strong solution of potassium cyanide is not recommended, as the genuine mother-of-pearl has also been treated with this solution to substitute mother-of-pearl dust for genuine and the results are very satisfactory. The treatment of the pearls with the very strong solution of potassium cyanide is not recommended, as the genuine mother-of-pearl has also been treated with this solution to substitute mother-of-pearl dust for genuine and the results are very satisfactory. The treatment of the pearls with the very strong solution of potassium cyanide is not recommended, as the genuine mother-of-pearl has also been treated with this solution to substitute mother-of-pearl dust for genuine and the results are very satisfactory.

# NOTES ON OVERHAULING A BOAT

BY ALBERT F. BISHOP

**Square Bumping for Boats.**—I think square bumps are a big improvement over round bumps. They do not weaken the planking or chafing strake and may move quickly be inserted.

The chafing strake on a round stern that has been bumped with round bumping invariably breaks sooner or later, when the round bumps have been inserted. When the square bump is used the nail is driven and



SQUARE BUMPING

set. The square punch which is a trifle larger than the nail head, is then driven in making the aperture for the square bump. This punch should be hardened and ground on an emery wheel making the corner just as keen and sharp as possible. Oblong rectangular bumps are preferable where the boat nail is used in planking etc. The bumps are quite easily made  $1/16$  of an inch square with a small hand saw, tilting the saw table slightly to produce the taper on two sides of the bump.

**Wheel Calker.**—The wheel calker illustrated herewith will easily force cotton into solid wood where there is no seam or joint. The shape gives one considerable leverage. The cotton is first placed along the seam by attaching it with the point of a knife at short distance, just enough to keep it in this with



WHEEL CALKER.

the joint. It is now ready for the knife shaped wheel, which calks it very rapidly. Take a strip of iron  $3/4$  by  $1/2$  inch thick,  $3/4$  foot long and bend it to a flaring U-shape. The bottom of the U should be 4 inches across and to it the wheels are riveted. The iron strip should be drawn down a little on the ends to receive the handles. The wheels are  $1/4$  inches in diameter. One of the wheels has a square edge  $1/16$  of an inch thick. The other wheel is  $3/16$  of an inch thick with the edge sharpened like a knife. There is a simple gauge placed on the framework near the square edged wheel which allows one to force the cotton to the desired depth in receiving the nutty.

**Marking the Water Line on a Boat.**—Level the boat athwartships and decide where you would like your water line, which in the case of a launch is about a foot below the gunwale. Place a line of three inches out of water when the boat is afloat. Take two straight edges 12 or 14 feet long placed level athwartships to the boat one at the bow and one at the stern at the height of the water line decided upon. Stretch a



MARKING THE WATER LINE ON A BOAT.

cord across the straight edge with the weight at each end to keep it taut and let it just touch the bilge of the boat so that you may dot your water line along the hull. The proper way to make a true line is with a thin bittling 1 or four inches wide and 10 or 12 feet long with the upper edge pressed against the boat to correspond with the dock. Be particular to keep the bittling exactly plane sideways and you can correctly scratch in your water line.

**Simple Method of Weighing a Boat.**—Take a level six or eight feet long, place a fulcrum on the ground

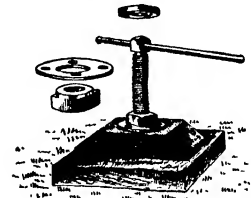
near the bow. Let the fulcrum (at 5 in the drawing) be just six inches from the end (1) of the lever that is under the bow of boat. A person that would weigh, say a hundred and fifty pounds, should work along on the lever, say to 5 or until the weight of his body would just lift the bow of the boat clear of the block ing. With a piece of chalk make a mark on the lever at this point. Divide the distance from the fulcrum to the chalk mark into 8 inch spaces and add 150 pounds for each space. For instance, eight space



WEIGHING A BOAT WITH A LEVER.

would mean 1,200 pounds, which would be a little less than the true weight of the boat, as the bow end is generally the lighter. Now raise the stern with the lever in the same manner. The boat being heavier at this end will call for more space. When this weight has been determined add the two weights and the result will not be far out for the entire boat. The blockings the boat rests on while the boat is lifted should be at the extreme end.

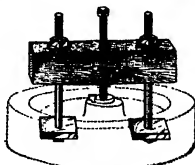
**A Home-made Lifting Jack.**—The jack here illustrated is made with a screw an inch in diameter and eight or more in length and a good heavy nut, the corners of which have been notched down with a file to receive a heavy washer. The part of the nut which comes through the washer should come through far



A HOME-MADE LIFTING JACK.

enough to allow for good heavy riveting on the washer. This makes the base for the nut to rest on and it is then placed on a wooden block, which is well secured with four wood screws. The base of the jack is a heavy block placed with the grain running at right angles to the upper block which holds the nut. The cap and lever require no description. The brand base prevents the jack from settling in the earth and from capsizing as well, which is a good feature around boat work.

**A Home-made Wheel Puller.**—A simple wheel puller can be made by taking a piece of maple about  $3/4$  inch square and about sixteen in length and fitting it with the bolts about as shown in the accompanying sketch. The nut for the center screw has the washer



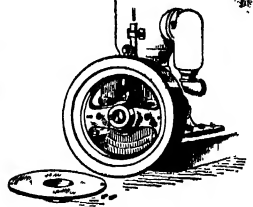
HOME-MADE WHEEL PULLER.

attached to it in the same way as in the lifting jack and it is similarly attached to the mast. The wheel bolts carry two broad nuts to catch on the rear face of the web or spokes of the wheel. The wheel is shown in dotted lines. This device is often resorted to in removing wheels from gasoline engines. This implement and the lifting jack have been in use four or five years. They have stood tests of wear and apparently are as strong as ever. A greater leverage

on the wheel puller is obtained on the outside edge with any suitable wrench.

**Convenient Flywheel for Gasoline Engines.**—All the flywheels for small marine gasoline engines are fitted up with spokes or webs with few exceptions, which makes it very awkward to get at the eccentric strap and pump to tighten the nuts and packing box. Nearly every time this is done the man in the engine uses a cold chisel or screwdriver and a hammer. I have changed a wheel and valve gear engine for four years. It has only two spokes, a hand rim, doing away with the crank pin, which is a dangerous feature. The plate between the floor covers the key as well as the spokes, and is attached with two machine screws.

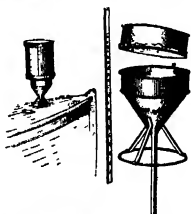
This makes a very tidy looking wheel and is entirely safe because there is no danger of the



A CONVENIENT FLYWHEEL.

caught in the spokes. It is a great convenience in cleaning behind the wheel or repainting, as it does not take a minute to remove the cover plates when desired. A wrench is the proper thing to use instead of a cold chisel. It can be done in the same style of wheel is used.

**Tunnel for Gasoline.**—The tunnel here shown is a practical one. You can capsize a five gallon can of gasoline and allow it to run the tunnel until it is empty, as illustrated in Fig. 1. A breeze of wind will not blow it one side slopping it over, which always happens when trying to pour out of the can into the ordinary funnel. The practical tunnel has a long piece of  $1/4$  inch tubing which goes well down into the tank



IMPROVED GASOLINE TUNNEL.

and should always be smaller than the receiving hole in the gasoline tank. The supports for the tunnel are made out of galvanized iron 1 inch wide and  $1/16$  inch thick, bending the upper end to conform to the angle of the cone while the lower end is bent around a  $3/16$ -inch galvanized wire hoop about two inches in diameter. A trifle larger than the upper part of the tunnel is good proportion.

This part of the tunnel is a standard article which can readily be prepared. The parts that are attached are well soldered. It is not necessary to rivet them. Place a wire gauge about fifty or sixty mesh to the inch inside of the tunnel. If a chamotte filter is desired make a band of metal that will neatly slip inside of upper part of the tunnel. The lower end of this is covered with chamotte, which is held in place with small twine. Take a strip of translucent paper to the measuring stick.

The graduation of gallons shown is marked with lamp black mixed with shellac. The graduated line turns a sharp and pronounced bend when exposed to gasoline, which is the mark.























# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

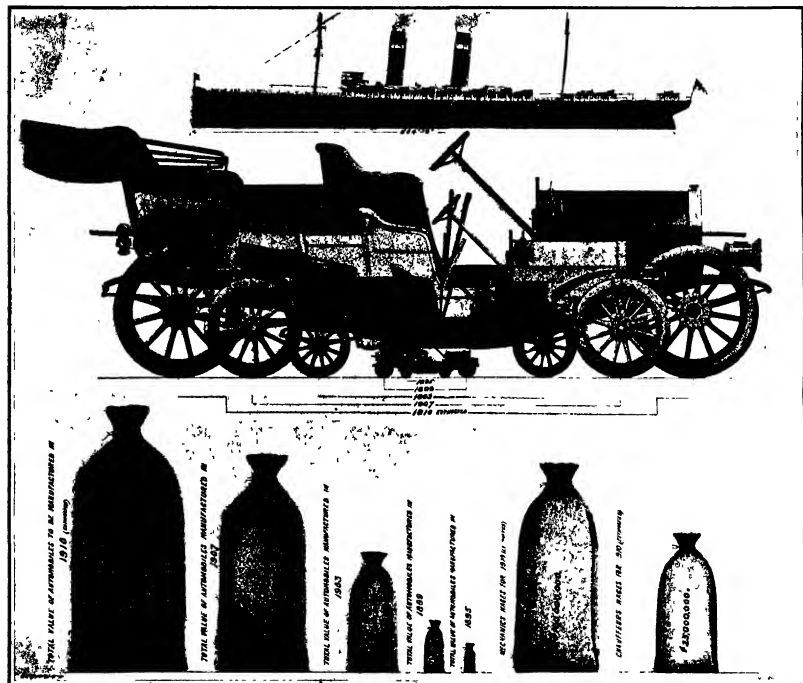
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A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS

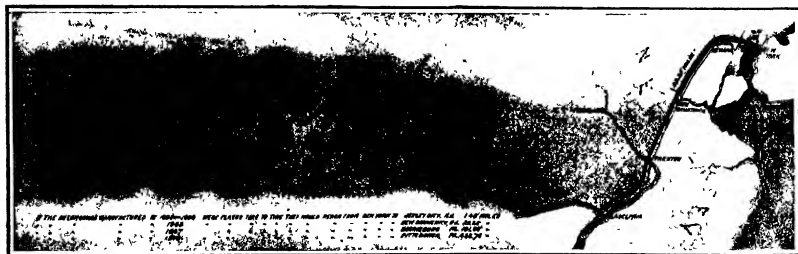
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In the upper picture the Automobiles of 1896 to 1910 are compared with the "St. Paul." In the lower picture we show what the Automobile Industry means in dollars.



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The actual geographical length of the Automobile output from 1895 to 1910  
THE MARVELOUS GROWTH OF OUR AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRY.—[See page 598.]



## ENGINEERING

The grand total of canal excavation at Panama during January was 1,663,995 cubic yards, of which 1,776,000 cubic yards was dry excavation, done principally by steam shovels. The amount taken out by the French during their occupancy of the canal was about 74,000,000 cubic yards. Under American occupation, from May 4th, 1904, to February 28th, 1910, over 100,000,000 cubic yards have been removed, leaving 74,497,000 cubic yards of excavation to complete the canal.

It is inevitable that the New York Central Railroad's huge excavation for its new station yard will be ultimately covered with buildings. An earnest of this is found in the fact that contracts have been signed for the construction of two large buildings, each of which will cover an entire city block, the new structures to face on Lexington Avenue, and to be supported on the heavy steel columns of the depressed station. The buildings, which will be known as the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Exchange, will contain 1,800,000 square feet of floor space.

The contribution of Australia and New Zealand to the British Imperial Navy will consist, in each case, of a cruiser-battleship of the same type, but larger than, the "Inflexible," which was present at New York during the Hudson Fulton Celebration, together with three 5,000-ton, 26-knot escort-cruisers, six torpedo-boat destroyers and several submarines. Each cruiser-battleship will cost about \$9,000,000, and each fleet unit about \$20,000,000. They will form an integral part of the British Navy, and will be subject to the regular naval orders.

The Committee on Electrification of the New York Railroad Club, after a year's study, of the subject reports that no general information is available on the basis of which steam railroads as a whole would be justified in electrifying terminals or main lines solely on the ground of economy. They consider that more attention should be given to the possibility of electrification in connection with heavy grades, and that it is necessary to proceed with caution in attempting the electrification of large freight terminals, which necessarily involve the traffic of a number of different roads.

The Committee on Wood Preservation, in a report delivered at the annual meeting of the American Railway Engineering and Maintenance-of-Way Association, states that the average results of tests of Douglas fir indicate a decrease of the modulus of elasticity of from 10 to 15 per cent for croosoted timber, as compared with untreated timber, and a decrease of about 30 per cent in the outer stress at elastic limit and at failure. Croosoting appears to have little effect on Douglas fir in tension or end compression, but it does weaken it from 20 to 25 per cent in shear. Tests with other timbers show, as a rule, corresponding decreases in strength as the result of croosoting.

In protesting against the granting of any further vault rights under sidewalks to owners of buildings along the principal streets of the city, the Public Service Commission has drawn attention to a most important subject. Much encroachments interfere greatly with the laying out of new subways, particularly beneath the narrower thoroughfares which are found in the lower portions of the city. The commission states that in Manhattan the practice of spreading foundations beyond the building line has already gone so far that much needed space in the streets has been taken, and that if the city enforced its legal rights, the foundations of some of the large buildings would be affected.

It is gratifying to learn that the latest battlehips of the United States Navy are not only living up to their contract speeds, but in recent 4-hour trials under full power at forced draught have even exceeded the original contract performance. The latest instance of this is the case of the "Louisiana" which, according to a dispatch to the Navy Department from Rear Admiral Schroeder, recently on a 4-hour full power trial maintained an average speed of 18.94 knots, and this in spite of the fact that she drew about 16 inches more water with about 1,000 tons greater displacement than on her contract run. The "Michigan" also made 19.43 knots, which is about a knot above her contract speed.

The second frightful accident near Green Mountain, Iowa, in which forty-seven lives were lost through the telescoping of two wooden railway cars, again draws attention to the danger that lurks in wooden construction when the cars are subject to the crushing and telescoping effect of a collision. The heavy train of thirteen coaches was drawn by two locomotives which were running tender first. The foremost tender jumped the track in a railway cut, and the engine, swinging around, became tightly wedged against the rear of the train, which was to be expected. The telescoping into each other of the day coach and smoker in which the fatalities occurred. Had the cars been of steel the fatalities would probably not have been so fearful as many.

## ELECTRICAL

An electric elevator has been installed in the stairway which leads to the crypts of St. Peter's Church in Rome. The elevator has a capacity for carrying ten persons. It bears an appropriate Latin inscription

A new combined electric and steam cooking range has recently been patented which is particularly adapted for use in hotels. The range is divided into two compartments one of which is heated by steam, while the other is electrically heated. The latter is used for cooking, while the steam is used for heating the crems. It is claimed that in this way a steady supply of heat is obtained very economically.

The Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company recently changed the form of brake used on its cars, adopting a "graduated release, quick-recharge" type in order to teach the motorman the best way of using the new brakes, an air-brake catechism has been issued, and lectures have been given on the subject. In the mean time a text-book is being prepared showing in detail how the brakes are arranged and how they should be used.

The Berlin police department is provided with an extensive typewriting telegraph system. There are about 300 receiving stations throughout the city and suburbs. The sending instrument is provided with a keyboard, and when the keys are depressed they cause the message to be printed simultaneously at the sending station and at the receiving station. The object of this system is to do away with the confusion of the Morse code. If the Morse code were used, it would have to be transcribed before a message could be put in the hands of the officer to whom it was sent.

A series of experiments was recently made at Johns Hopkins University to determine the dielectric strength of air. It was found that the point at which a brush discharge occurred is only slightly affected by the moisture in the air. From dry air to saturated air there is a drop in voltage of the discharge of less than 3 per cent. An increase of temperature from the freezing point to 40 deg. Cent. caused the lowering of voltage by about 3 per cent. Very curiously it was found that the size of the conductor materially affected the ionization of the air.

"An investigation into the conductivity of electric insulators was recently discussed in the *Physikalische Zeitschrift*. It was found that hard rubbers are greatly affected by light, particularly ultra violet rays and that gutta serena is similarly affected though to a lesser degree. The investigation was made to take place on the surface of the insulator, which produces a conductive coating. Sealing wax and paraffine are also affected to a degree by light, but they are more subject to breakdown because of moisture. The conductivity of glass is not affected by light, but is increased by moisture. Glass makes a very cratic insulator the same rod of glass may have parts that differ materially in conductivity. The investigation also brought out the fact that the insulating qualities of the insulators decrease with an increase in temperature.

About a month ago one of the Edison storage battery cars was placed on the Twenty-eighth Street cross-town line as an experiment. The car has been in constant operation since and has required no alterations or repairs other than are common to the ordinary street car. It has proved remarkably economical in the consumption of power. Instead of costing two cents a mile as the ordinary car, it costs only one cent. The cost of power is less than half a cent—0.42 cent to be exact. It costs more to start and stop the car than to keep it running, and it was supposed by practical railroad men that when the car was put into active service on congested streets, the cost of running it would far exceed the estimate made by the builders. The satisfactory have been the result. The Edison Company has been placed with the Edison Company for sixteen more to be used on the Twenty-eighth Street cross-town line.

A decidedly novel wireless telegraph detector has recently been invented by Prof. Rosa of Turin. It depends upon the torsional vibration of a fine iron wire, which is held in a horizontal position by a magnet, which has a spiral direction. The wire is stretched close to two permanent magnets with like poles adjacent, and is also placed in the center of a coil through which a current is passed. When the current through the coil is rapidly alternated the wire vibrates circularly, that is, it has a reciprocal rotary motion. At the center of the wire is a small cylindrical piece of wood, which is attached to the wire. The vibration causes the light to spread out into a line whose length depends upon the amplitude of the vibration. When connected with an antenna, the construction of the instrument is such that it follows the vibratory movement of the wire. The wire has a natural period of torsional vibrations, and this being known it is possible to attune the instruments at a distance to produce a maximum effect on the screen.

## SCIENCE

**Mr. Henry Wilde, FRS** of Alderley Edge, is providing Oxford University with funds for the institution of an annual lecture as a memorial of Huxley.

A monument to Horace Wells was unveiled on March 7th in the Place des Etats Unis Paris. Wells was born in Hartford Conn. in 1815 and was a pioneer in the use of nitrous oxide gas in dental operations. He committed suicide in New York in 1848.

We have read somewhere that Peter the Great, when he was staying in England, had a particular liking for the companionship of Halley, and that after carousing with him at Deptford one evening he wheeled him in a barrow through a yew hedge and did such damage that he had to pay handsome compensation to John Evelyn the owner which incident shows that Shakespeare was right in thinking that not every astronomer plucks his judgments from the stars.

**Gold** is usually classed among the metals which are soluble only in aqua regia, i. e. a mixture of nitric and hydrochloric acids. It has been observed, however, that hydrochloric acid alone is able to dissolve gold, in the presence of certain organic compounds, which are here arranged in order of activity: Methyl alcohol, amyl alcohol, chloroform, ethyl alcohol, chloral hydrate, phenol (carbolic acid), cane sugar, glycerine, trioxymethylene, formaldehyde. The solution takes time, slowly, in the cold, but is accelerated by heating.

[illegible]

The Austrian State products of radium have been entrusted to the *Böhmische Radiumwerke* (B. R. W.) in Vienna, under the control of the Austrian Government. The products are supplied in the form of radium-barium chloride of three different grades: the price for each milligramme of radium chloride, including the containing cell, being 4000 schillings for the first grade, 2000 for the second, and 1000 for the third. The cells are 10 millimetres diameter and 9 millimetres long, formed of nickel-plated brass. On the bottom of the cell a layer of lead is laid, in which is a square depression for the radium. The cell is closed by a cover which is fastened by a nickel-plated lid in position by the screwed on upper part of the casing. On the bottom of the casing is an official stamp (on one) and the serial number (on the other). The cells are packed in a cardboard box, the so-called parent, are also supplied. The cells are packed in cotton and sheet lead in a small box, together with a certificate bearing the name of the manufacturer. The boxes are sealed with strips bearing the numbers of the cells, and are despatched by post as registered packets at the cost of risk and the cost of insurance.

Upward of twenty different systems of storm signals are at present used by the maritime countries of the world. A uniform international code is a desideratum which has long been recognized by the International Meteorological Committee in a small commission which met in London last summer and agreed to recommend to the committee the adoption of a code proposed by Prof. M. H. Chief of the United States Weather Bureau. This large commission took a few simple combinations of the three colors symbols now used at a majority of the European ports for the storm flags to replace the present system. Red and white lanterns are to be used at night to convey the same information as the day signals. The proposed code has not yet been approved by the decision of the International Meteorological Committee which meets in Berlin next September. Since the London meeting objections have been raised by the German and American meteorological services on the grounds that they are not sufficiently distinctive and might be confused with other harbor lights. The Deutsche Seewarte at Hamburg is now experimenting with several other combinations of colors and shapes as the results of its investigations before the committee

## TIMING AN AUTOMOBILE RACE

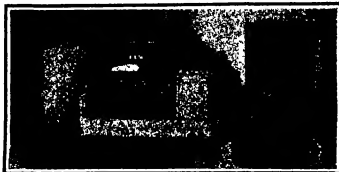
AN AUTOMATIC INSTRUMENT THAT TAKES THE PLACE OF A STOP-WATCH.

Even the casual reader has no doubt observed that automobile records are now expressed in hundredths of a second, whereas but a few months ago it was impossible to obtain any greater precision than fifth of a second, and of which the use of the time-honored split-second stop-watch has been outgrown in automobile races. When one stops to think about it, it is really absurd to try to time an automobile traveling anywhere from a mile to two miles and over in a minute with an indicator that cranks at a snail's pace around a dial but an inch and a quarter in diameter. In the recent race at Ormond, for instance where the mile record was reduced to 27.33 seconds by Barney Oldfield, he was traveling nearly 200 feet each second, which is equivalent to the length of an ordinary New York city block. When automobiles were first used for racing purposes, they were timed in hand with stop watches, wherever the operator is depended upon to snap a stop watch, inaccuracies are apt to creep in due to the fact that one person is quicker of perception than another, and so the start of the race, and as soon as this impression is received must start his watch, then at the close of the race the same operation must be undergone to stop the watch. The time recorded in this mental and physical operation varies in different persons, and is known as the personal element. Not only does it vary with different persons but with the same person at different times depending upon his mental and physical condition. For this reason, even in the timing of foot races it was long ago found necessary to have three timers and to take the time of the middle watch, for the instruments of the three timers varied as much as three-fifths of a second.

Early in the history of automobile racing an effort was made to eliminate the personal element by having stop-watches snapped automatically by the car themselves making or breaking an electrical contact when they crossed the starting and finishing tapes that, as we have just pointed out, even with the personal element eliminated, stop-watches are entirely too slow to record the time of so rapidly moving an object as a racing automobile. The experiment of using a chronograph was tried in several of the races last year, but as this did not prove very satisfactory, Mr. C. H. Warner of the Warner Instrument Company determined to make a special instrument particularly adapted for this purpose. This instrument was first used at Atlantic last December, and has just been employed for timing the Ormond and Daytona races. It works with the utmost precision, is entirely automatic, and makes a printed record of the race, reading to hundredths of a second. The necessity of such great refinement of timing will be appreciated when one considers that the "Lightning Bear" during its record mile run was traveling at the rate of 218 inches at every hundredth of a second.

Mr. Warner's instrument consists of four type wheels, one of which indicates hours the next minute the third seconds, and the last one-hundredths of a second. The wheels are operated after the manner of an odometer instrument. Over the wheels runs a strip of paper and above that a typewriter ribbon, and a record is made by a hammer actuated by an electro-magnet, which strikes the ribbon and paper against the type wheels. In the circuit of the magnet which operates the hammer is a relay switch controlled by an electro-magnet in a circuit that is normally closed. This closed circuit is connected with the starting and finish tapes, or with tapes at other points where it is desirable to record the time. The tape consists of a wire stretched across the course at a height of a few inches above the ground and this wire is connected, to a switch ingeniously constructed to be opened by the shock, rather than an increase of tension when the wire is struck by the wheels of an automobile. When the switch opens the instrument prints a record. The type wheels are frictionally mounted on a driving shaft, which is rotated by an electric motor. At the start of the race they are held stationary, and are not released until the starting wire is depressed, when they print once and they begin their revolutions. The hundredths wheel makes a revolution every two seconds.

Obviously, the most important part of the instrument is the regulation of the electric motor which drives the type wheels. It is impossible to construct a motor so perfect or a storage battery that will discharge so uniformly, that there will be not the slightest



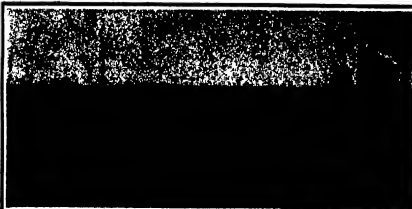
An instrument that times races to hundredths of a second.

variation in the rotation of the driving shaft. However, the instrument is so arranged that at the end of every second its speed is automatically checked up with an accurate chronometer. At one end of the driving shaft is a doublearm lever, and in the path



Switching in the instrument as a car is approaching the tape.

of this arm is a small catch connected with the armature of an electro-magnet. The chronometer acts through a relay circuit to energize this magnet every second, thus moving the catch out of the path of each arm of the lever. The motor is regulated



Barney Oldfield approaching the finish line at the end of his record mile race.

## TIMING AN AUTOMOBILE RACE.

to turn the shaft over so slightly faster than one turn in two seconds, so that each arm strikes the catch just an instant before it is withdrawn. Secured to the base of the instrument at one side is a little "tail-tale" indicator, forming the structure of an electro-magnet. The circuit of the magnet is closed when over the arm and catch contact, thus giving the "tail-tale" a slight throb every second. The operator

of the instrument watches this "tail-tale," with one hand on the governor of the electric motor, and the "tail-tale" indicator hangs too long at each moment of the arm and catch, he slows up the motor a trifle, whereas if the "tail-tale" fails to indicate a moment he speeds up the motor slightly, so that the arm will strike the catch just before or at the moment that the catch is withdrawn by the chronometer. In this way a very accurate check is kept on the timing of the motor, which can be regulated to within 1/1,000 of a second of the speed of the chronometer. In order to avoid a false start due to a person's walking against or tripping over the tape lines, the timing instrument is out of circuit with the starting time until just before an automobile is about to touch them. An assistant gives a signal to the operator of the instrument at the proper time, and he throws in a switch just in time to catch the record of the automobile. At the same time the assistant calls out the number of the automobile, which the operator enters on the paper strip alongside of the registered time. When the car reaches the finish line, this is communicated to the operator's assistant by telephone. It will be observed that no personal element whatever enters into the recording of the time made by the machine, and that everything is automatic except the regulation of the speed of the motor and the entering of the automobile numbers opposite the seconds they have made.

One of our photographs shows Barney Oldfield in his "Lightning Bear" just as he is approaching the finish line. The other photograph shows Mr. Warner in the timing stand about to take the record of the approaching car.

## To Remodel the House of Representatives.

Because the acoustics of the House of Representatives are so bad that it is almost impossible for the Speaker to hear a member of the House, unless that member has lungs of leather, plans have been drawn and all preparations made for a transformation of the lower house of Congress.

For many years now there has been trouble in the House both in the way of acoustics and with ventilation. For such a large body, these two practical features have not been as they should be. The plan in contemplation will remedy these defects, and make the House one of the finest legislative chambers in the world.

One of the main lines to be put into execution is the reducing in size of the chamber. In this way it is thought that with smaller quarters, doing away with some of the galleries, and by narrowing the chamber, the acoustics will be all that could be desired. The ventilation will also be arranged to better advantage.

The plans as contemplated also bring the House of Representatives in the same fashion as the British House of Commons. In this manner benches and small shelves will take the place of the desks and easy chairs now used by the members. The benches will resemble in appearance the chairs used in the Senate. By placing away the desks and easy chairs, it is thought that those members not interested in the debates or speeches will absent themselves from the chamber.

The floor of the present chamber has an area of nearly 5,000 square feet. The floor plan of the proposed hall will only be about 6,300 square feet. The seating capacity of the new hall will be 430, although there are now less than 400 members of the House.

Some of the lobbies and extra rooms will be cut out, and the reduction in size of the hall will, of course, result in the reduction of the public galleries, whose seating capacity will be reduced about thirty.

Coming to the peculiar conditions of the hall, with regard to the acoustics and ventilation, many members will away their time by conversing with each other in loud tones or talking across the chamber by slamming their desks or kicking the carpet. Improvements are being made now for a notation computer and one which cannot be kicked around.

Congress has thus appropriated over half a million dollars for the transformation, and the members are waiting for the improvement in their quarters.

# A FINE LONG-SPAN MASONRY ARCH BRIDGE

BY OUR ENGLISH CORRESPONDENT

There has been erected on the new Bellegarde-Chancy electric railway in France a masonry bridge which in span and height ranks as the largest of its type in the country, and which possesses many interesting features. The bridge is situated in the Département de l'Ain, and is in close proximity to the frontier of Switzerland in the canton of Geneva. This imposing structure was designed and erected under the supervision of Monsieur Piazet, engineer in chief of the Bridge Department of the works of the Compagnie des Chemins de fer de l'Ain, and Monsieur Dor, surveyor in chief of the department.

The new railroad passes through the wildest and most picturesque spots of the Jura Mountains and in its location follows the course of the Valserine stream, a tributary to the Rhone. This rivulet is crossed twice first by means of the Bellegarde viaduct comprising seven spans each of 60 feet in the clear by 150 feet in height, and secondly by a handsome masonry bridge the Moulin des Pierres or Montanas which has a main span of 262 feet 9 1/2 inches.

At the latter crossing the river flows through a deep rock gorge, the precipitous banks of which are over 170 feet in height. The rock was found to be of such excellent bearing quality that the engineer in chief decided to use the cliffs as the abutments of a large single arch. The latter in springing from the sides has a radius of 164 feet 3/4 inch for the arc at the intrados and of 177 1/2 feet at the extrados. The thickness of the masonry at the key stone is 4 feet 11 inches and at the springing 8 feet 3 1/2 inches while the width is 17 feet 10 1/2 inches increased at the coping to 20 feet 8 inches between parapets which is sufficient to provide width for two foot pavements a railroad track of meter gauge and a roadway paralleling the railroad track.

The eleven small arches which surmount the great span on either side have semicircular openings of 17 feet 4 1/2 inches clear. They are carried on piers having a thickness at the top of 3 feet 6 1/2 inches and the sides parallel with the axis of the stream have a batter of 1 in 10 from the point at which they rise from the main arch.

Owing to the depth of the ravine the erection of such a large single span bridge called for some extensive framework. As the keystone of the main span is approximately 217 feet above the level of the water it was necessary to erect wooden falsework from the stream to the level of the abutments to carry the centering and this temporary work comprises three substantial towers built of wood and strongly braced

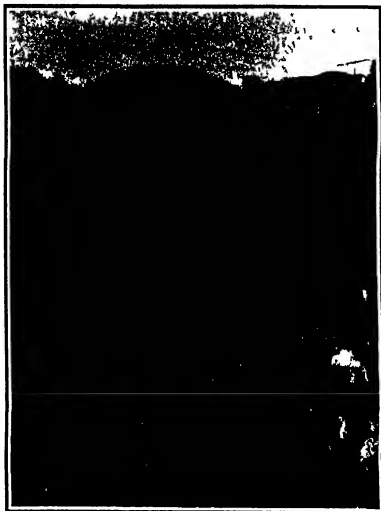
together. The towers were each some 111 feet in height and were erected on masonry piers 11 feet in height built on piles driven in the bed of the stream. In erecting the towers it was imperative that ample provision should be made for wind pressure as

when the extent of any deformation from this cause the engineers caused the stone-work to be laid in eight sections independent of one another which were finally connected together. An aerial railway was erected across the gorge by means of which the timber piers centering and arch were erected the whole of the material being conveyed to its site and set in position by this means.

The bridge was commenced in August 1908. By January 17th of the following year the whole of the timber falsework had been set up and the erection of the masonry was completed by August 1st last. When the masonry work was finished the timbering was dismantled. The removal of the centering was accomplished by emptying the boxes filled with sand on which the various parts of the falsework framework had been dropped and the whole of the timbering sufficiently to enable it to be handled. The falsework was demolished without any movement being noticed in the masonry by November 7th last. When completed the bridge will equal in span any similar work existing in France, while its height over the valley which is equal to that of the towers of Notre Dame in Paris is greater than that of any other single span masonry bridge elsewhere in the world. Its total cost will approximate £72,000.

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According to the *Phenix Railway Journal* estimates with a method of increasing traction by magnetic wheels have been conducted for some time by Mr. D. Hines of Lowell, Mass. The wheel consists of four magnet coils outside of which are four segments comprising part of the tread of the wheel and a ring of 1 per cent manganese steel in clasp of between them and the wheel proper to send the magnetic air into the rail. The energizing of the magnets is so timed that each succeeding section of the wheel is attracted to the rail just in advance of making contact with it so that the drive is sides giving increased adhesion also magnetization. The current is cut off from each segment as soon as it is no longer in contact with the rail. Tests have been made on a truck equipped with two 1 horse power 700 volt standard railway motors and weighing 15,000 pounds. With this traction pull of 20,000 pounds. With the wheels magnetized the tractive effort was increased to 45,000 pounds or more than 100 per cent. The inventor does not claim to increase the traction by such a liberal percentage on an ordinary axle but states that a car equipped with his device should be able to mount grades that are otherwise impossible without a risk



Timber falsework ready for the laying of the masonry

the storm which drove through this ravine, an often of extreme severity. This was accomplished by tying the towers to each other and to the embankment rock and the pier bases by steel cables so arranged as to provide a system of bracing which served to hold the whole of the falsework perfectly rigid. The actual character of the timber centering is plainly visible in the accompanying illustrations and it may be mentioned that in this part of the work 21,185 cubic feet of wood and 10 tons of iron and steel were used.

In placing the masonry in position care had to be observed to guard against any sinking of the timbering under the superimposed weight and in order to



The masonry of the main arch was laid in eight independent courses.



The arch has a clear span of 262 feet 9 1/2 inches; it stands 217 feet clear of the river.

ISSUED BY THE MONTAGNE MASONRY ARCH BRIDGE.

## OUR MARVELOUS AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRY

If ever an industry has grown by leaps and bounds, surely it is that of making motor cars. Even the highways in its palmy days did not produce machinery whose total value for ten years could compare with the truly enormous sum of money represented by the automobile products made in the United States between 1895 and 1910. More figures tell but little. For that reason, we have provided on the front page of this issue a graphic illustration, in which the wonderful strides made in the manufacture of motor cars are tellingly depicted. The motor strides are all the more remarkable when it is considered that the industry had to weather the severe financial depression of 1908, a period which was one of the most critical in the recent financial history of this country.

Considered merely from the standpoint of money, the automobile industry in this country presents a most wonderful spectacle. The total estimated value of automobiles to be manufactured in 1910 is \$257,000,000. When the industry was born in this country, which was in 1895, the estimated value of the machines turned out was only \$157,000. In the brief span of twelve years, therefore, we have created an industry whose annual product is valued at millions. The intermediate stages between 1895 and 1910 show a growth which is stupendous. The stage from 1895 to 1899 marked an increase in value of \$1,000,000. In the following years, the actual value of automobiles manufactured in 1899 being \$1,200,000. Still more remarkable is the development from 1899 to 1903, for the value of the automobile product in that year increased nearly sixteen fold in that time, the actual value of automobiles produced in 1903 being \$15,000,000. Remarkable also is that increase undoubtedly was it was almost equaled by the increase in 1905, when the value of \$105,000,000 worth of automobile machinery was manufactured. From the year 1907 to 1910 a 100 per cent increase is to be expected. In other words, in these three years the value of the automobile product of this industry will be greater than the total value of the industry in the year 1907.

An industry which has grown with such startling regularity and which is valued at so precisely a sum, naturally gives employment to an army of mechanics, all of them skilled men handsomely paid. Thus we find that the mere wages paid for mechanics in 1910 will amount to about \$100,000,000. The number of men who drive the many cars which were in use in 1910 will earn \$25,000,000 at the very least in 1910.

The number of automobiles produced is nothing short of staggering. If the number of cars made in 1907, and to end, they would reach from New York to Pittsburg, a distance of 437.7 miles. This output of 300,000 in three years makes it clear that of 1907, considered in this linear scale, the value of the automobile product of 1907, had they been placed end to end, would have extended from New York to Haverhill, a distance of 191.05 miles. Compared with this, the 15,333 automobiles manufactured in 1903 seem exceedingly small, although as a matter of fact the machines for that year, had they been placed end to end, would have extended from New York to New Brunswick, N. J., a distance of 29.25 miles. Even this, small as it seems in comparison with the gigantic production of 1910, is huge when we consider that between 1895 and 1910 the 676 automobiles produced in this country would have extended only from New York to Jersey City, a distance of 1.46 miles.

Had all the automobiles made in 1910 been converted into a single huge machine, it would be like the front-page illustration shows, a car which would be longer than the steamship "St. Paul," measuring 524 feet from stem to stern. "The output of 1899 had it been thus converted into a single machine," would have been longer than the "St. Paul." The machines of 1903 similarly considered would have been three-quarters as long. The output of 1895-1899 is, of course, vanishingly small in comparison with this gigantic trans-Atlantic steamer.

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steering knuckles, driving axle, and other vital parts. Contrasting this condition with the results of the Olden Times of 1909, we find that thirty cars took part in that race and finished an arduous trip of 1640 miles in 15 days, at an average speed of twenty miles an hour during the daylight running periods, without making a single involuntary stop. That tells the tale of the marvelous technical improvement of wheels have been effected in the brief space of a few years. It is rarely indeed that repairs are made during runs nowadays. Occasionally a brake, a carburetor, an ignition system, or the like, may be adjusted, or a wheel may blow out, but the cars operate smoothly and trustworthily.

The introduction of special grades of steel, aluminum, vanadium, and babbit, all of them endowed with definite chemical properties peculiarly suited to the requirements of automobile manufacture, have wonderfully improved the quality of the motor car. Nickel steel and chrome-nickel steel are now used in crank shafts, transmission shafts, driving axles, driving and differential steering gears, steering knuckles, and similar parts; manganese-bronze, phosphor-bronze, and various aluminum alloys find their places in crankcase and other boxes, electric gear boxes, and parts demanding great stiffness combined with light weight.

The automobile industry is very largely responsible for the discovery of the physical properties of chromium-nickel and manganese-iron alloys, and the different modes of heat treatment and for the introduction of special tool steels required to work them, and has thus indirectly benefited the metallurgical industry of this country. As a result of the constant use of new steels in the sliding gear sets, by way of illustration, it is now possible to transmit the 40 and 60 horsepower of the modern touring car with smaller and lighter gear sets than were used in cars of 15 and 20 horsepower five years ago, and that with much greater certainty against breakage and the practical elimination of the unmaking of the ends of the teeth by rubbing and of wear due to contact under load. All this improvement in quality, plus infinitely more grace in general lines and in comfort to the passengers, is offered to the buyer almost at no advance in cost over the ungainly, uncomfortable, and poorly-equipped cars of six and seven years ago. It is safe to say that a great proportion of the automobiles manufactured in 1910 will be low priced cars. The car that could be bought for 100 years ago would be too good for the horse required close attention. Automobileing at that time was unquestionably a diversion for the rich. Nowadays a man of moderate means can purchase and use a car at an expense that is well within the bounds of reason.

In the early days of the automobile industry, the maker of the machine was the maker of the machine, to-day the factories actually making over 75 per cent of the parts that they use are in small proportion to the number of producers. It is to these plants that the convenience of the medium-priced automobile is largely due. There was a time when an assembled car was undoubtedly open to suspicion, for however dextrous a maker of its parts might be to do good work, he had neither the knowledge nor the facilities that would make it possible. These same companies now possess enormous plants. Their designers and equipment are the best obtainable and their products are polished and best in practice, workmanship, and material. Assemblers now have at their command parts of a high degree of excellence, and can buy them at prices far below those charged for the weak and inferior parts of five years ago.

When a manufacturer turns out twenty thousand cars a year it is not only justifiable but necessary for him to have very considerable sums in special machinery and equipment that he can use in the production of his cars. One manufacturer has spent \$100,000 for dies to produce a rear axle housing, on a production of one thousand cars, the charge against each car being \$10.00. With an output of twenty thousand cars, however, the charge of \$2 against each is little enough for the purchaser to pay for so excellent a feature.

A most important development that illustrates the endeavor to reduce manufacturing costs is the establishment by some of the leading producers of assembling shops at the large centers. To these are shipped parts in suitable quantities, and the cars are required for that locality, and as there is no expense of machine tools, the expense is slight. The freight rate on unassembled parts is much lower than on complete cars, and cars are often shipped in this manner, as well as in money makes the system a satisfactory one.

Just as the automobile industry is, huge as is the value of its output, it must not be supposed that the present-day manufacturer of automobiles is safe to say that the present-day manufacturer of medium-priced automobiles no more than a legitimate profit. One of the largest producers stated recently that his profit on a \$1,000 car is but \$100, surely not enough to make him consider his economic investment in material and parts, his really vast equipment of machine tools, and his labor expense.

It has been said that any average engineer who de-

signs a car to sell at \$4,000, but that the greatest profit is necessary when the selling price is to be less than \$1,000. Perhaps that may account for some of the exceedingly clever designs in the lower class cars.

The scene of the industry has shifted in the years from 1895 to 1910. Much of the early experimenting in motor cars and early manufacturing was done in Buffalo, Hartford, and Boston, N. J., Bridgeport and Hartford, Conn., Philadelphia, Pa., and other Eastern States. At present Michigan leads all the States in motor-car manufacturing, for that State last year made 115,000 cars, and the production of cars for 1910. Four other States adjoining it will produce 75,075 machines at least. The Middle West may therefore be said to be the real home of the automobile industry at the present time. It controls not only the assembling industry, but the making of tires, parts, and accessories as well, a condition which is primarily due to the industrial enterprises of the smaller communities of the Middle West, who have given land and in every way furthered the making of automobiles. It must also be considered that the makers of automatic machinery are very largely situated in the West, for which reason the better class of skilled labor is there to be found. Lastly, the shifting of the industry from the East to the Middle West has been caused in part at least by the fact that the raw material is there put in the hands of the manufacturer, in the form of rubber, steel, leather, wood, brass, and the like.

That the Middle West is undoubtedly benefited by the influx of automobile manufacturers can be shown at the wonderful increase in the people brought to the smaller towns. The influx of 2,000 to 5,000 families has doubled and tripled the populations of such cities as Flint, Mich., and Newmarket, Ind., and greatly increased the value of real estate. Persons who were practically unheard of before the automobile entered into our daily life are now thriving centers of industry. Communities with a population of only five or six hundred have become important places through the magazine advertising pages to millions and millions of readers, simply because they are the sites of large automobile plants.

## Cost of Various Methods of Illumination.

The Frankforter Zeitsung publishes the following remarkably complete table of the cost of various methods of illumination.

Cost of 100 normal candle hours.	Cents
Washington light	0.228
Fluorescent electric	0.281
Mercury vapor lamp	0.300
Incandescent gas light	0.585
Incandescent petroleum light	0.714
Direct current electric arc	0.942
Ocean, arc and tungsten lamp	1.000
Kerosene burner	1.668
Oleum lamp	1.785
Titanium lamp	1.904
Incandescent alcohol lamp	2.000
Alternating current electric arc	2.104
Normal lamp	2.023
Small arc lamps	2.143
Acetylene	2.658
Carbon diamond	2.808
Argand gas burner	3.008
Flashlight gas burner	5.690
Electric candle	22.100

The Washington lamp is an incandescent lamp which burns petroleum under pressure.

In compiling this table the following average prices for fuel and electrical energy were employed:

Kerosene	2.38 cents per pound
Alcohol	4.25 cents per pound
Bleached kerosene	1.68 cents per pound
Gas	10.74 cents per thousand cubic feet
Acetylene	8.09 cents per thousand cubic feet
Electric energy	11.00 cents per kilowatt hour.

According to plans formulated by Rear-Admiral C. D. Sigsbee, U. S. Navy, the equipment of the United States navy, and submitted by him to Congress, wireless apparatus of the latest type is to be supplied to all the new vessels of the navy, including destroyers, and all existing, and in this latter class must be provided very valuable in establishing wireless chains across long stretches of ocean without the necessity of disrupting the fighting fleet. Another shore station is contemplated at Dutch Harbor, Alaska, to provide wireless communication with Berlin Sea, connecting with the Cape Nome station, permitting vessels from Nome to leave California to keep in touch with the world. After the contemplated high-powered dispatch station is established, it is believed similar stations will be found necessary in the following places: The west coast of the United States, the Panama Canal Zone, Hawaii, and the Philippines. With stations at these points, it will be within our grasp to practically all waters where naval operations of interest to the United States might be expected. Such stations will cost, \$100,000.



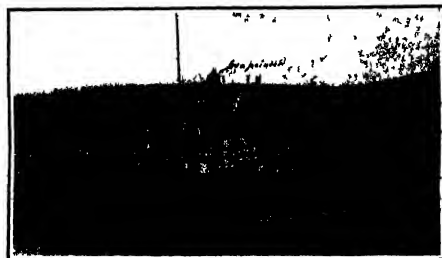
## OUR SEACOAST DEFENSES

BY CAPT. H. E. CLOKE, U. S. ARMY

When the Constitution of the United States was framed creating a republic in form of government provisions were made for the creation of military and naval forces and for the exist of a land troops for the purpose of repelling of invasion

Owing to the fact that across to our coast fortifications has in years past been prohibited to the citizens of this country it is not surprising how few men understand the method of firing a high powered gun or a modern mortar. For this reason the following de-

duty for in case of imminent attack the men sleep at the guns. The battle commander then notifies the fire commanders by telephone of the approach of the fleet. The fleet would probably be picked up at ten or twelve thousand yards. At this range all the heavy



Positions of detachment at command "Load" for 6-inch disappearing rifle.



The range finder is the eye of the system while the telephonic and telegraph are its nerves. The hitting power of a battery absolutely depends upon its range finder.

No better warlike could be found and send to the country and there is no warlike that should appear more to the patriotism of our State troops than this and particularly the troops of those States which border the coast in defense of our organized State Militia and the various labor organizations should be attracted to the subject of coast defense for the reasons that men in such organizations are unable to leave their families and business interests and enlist for general service in times of war. If they were organized as a defensive force for the protection of their homes against invasion, the defense force of the State and country could be in raised by the body of men, the labor organizations and the troops of the

[illegible]

description illustrated by the different drawings is given. Let us consider the enemy's fleet to have been sighted on the horizon and headed under full steam in column formation for the entrance of a harbor. The attack is being made during a late hour of the night. On the discovery of the leading ship by the powerful



It is if the telescope of this instrument are vertical and horizontal cross hairs. As the eyepiece of the telescope is elevated or depressed the water level, a ship's center of gravity, is raised or lowered. The water level is a horizontal line, and the ship's center of gravity is a point. The intersection of the horizontal line and the vertical line is the water level of a ship. Therefore, the water level is a horizontal line, and the ship's center of gravity is a point. This is the principle of the instrument.

**Lewis motion under**

searchlights of the defense the battle commander directs the wounding of call to arms. Within ten seconds every soldier is at his station or post for



It is in this room that specially trained men determine from data received from the range finders the course of a target and its predicted position. This predicted range is sent to the guns of a battery and by the ring, a few seconds predicted time is announced and the gunner fires by remote control device.

### A plotting device

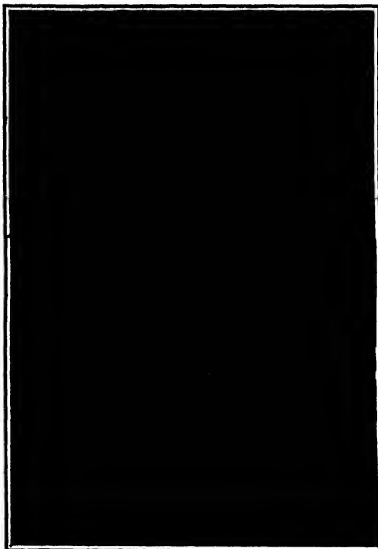


These weapons attack the most vulnerable part of a ship—the deck. Each one is loaded with a 1,000-pound shell which is filled with about 100 pounds of high explosive which detonates on striking. Series of these mortars are fired at once. Their extreme range is 12,000 yards. At long ranges they are more accurate than a cannon.

Positions of detachment at command "Post" for 12-inch mortars.



and secondary stations, the observers at the instruments read the azimuth angles at the base ends. These angles are immediately plotted on the plotting board, and the position of the target with reference to the center of the gun is determined. At the expiration of 15 seconds, the bell again rings, and the target is again plotted. The course of the ship is then accurately determined and, by means of a mechanical device on the gun arm, the amount the target has changed in azimuth, due to its speed, is determined. The last range read is now set on a device called the range board. This device is practically a graphic adding and subtracting machine. The corrections above referred to for atmosphere wind, tide etc. are here applied, and the resultant correction (a reference number) is set off on the gun arm of the plotting board, and corrected range are now sent to the gun by telephone or teleauto graph. This range is called the corrected predicted range to the target. It is predicted for an interval of 15 or 30 seconds ahead. It is now plugged in on the time range relation board which is in full view of the range keeper at the gun. The range keeper keeps the range disk continually set at the corrected range (as observed on the time range relation board) such that the gun can be fired at any time. The deflection correction is obtained by the use of a device called the deflection board. This as in the case of the range board is an adding and subtracting machine which determines the number of degrees and minutes of deflection to be set on the sight due to wind drift and speed of target. The drift is determined by ballistic calculations, and the curve is constructed on a metal leaf on the board. The velocity of the wind is determined at the meteorological station by means of an anemometer and is received at the plotting room by means of an electrical device called the anemoscope shown in



Groups of these double weapons are placed in one battery to keep the enemy out. They are known as friendly ships and are usually controlled by a remote control system. The system of observation is kept secret. The high (upside) is obtained in the South of the ship.

A complete submarine mine

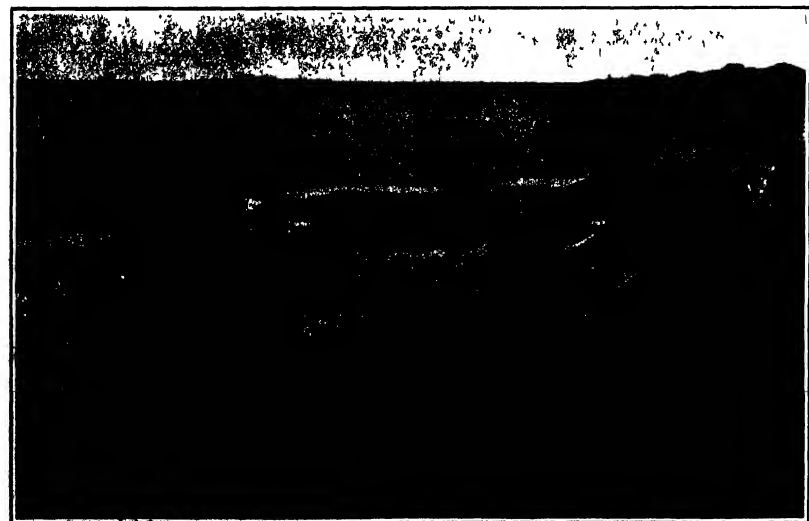
(Illustration from *The Gunner's Handbook*, published by J. H. Wiley & Sons)

the drawing. The azimuth of the wind is also sent by the same means. The components in the direction of range and deflection are determined by means of a device called the wind component indicator shown in the picture. The atmosphere correction is determined in the meteorological station and is sent in over the anemoscope. The height of tide is determined by a tide gauge. The velocity correction is determined by a device called the powder chart.

Owing to the fact that these corrections may be either additive or subtractive and that the use therefore of a negative sign tends to confuse the gunners in the plotting room these corrections to be applied to the range are not sent in according to their actual values but by means of reference numbers. The value of the sight for example is the number 1. The gunner at the sight therefore would receive a deduction like this 4.25. He simply sets his sight to read this deflection and the gun will then be correctly aimed. It is to be understood that all these fire control instruments and stations are located at obscure places in the fort reservation and are amply protected by parapets of earth and concrete. They are connected with each other by either telephone, teleauto graph or speaking tube, all of which are laid underground deep enough to insure ample protection from ordinary gun fire.

The fire control system of our coast artillery is also very flexible. If the horizontal base system fails each observing instrument at the primary and secondary stations can be used as a vertical base range finder and the system is so arranged that in case all the range finders except that of the fire commander are put out of action his station can supply all the guns with the necessary data for firing them. Furthermore if all the stations including the fire commander's should be

(Continued on page 302)



This diagram shows in a general way the arrangement of an open-data battery. The position of the enemy is fixed by observing the angles the ship makes at two observing stations. SP and BP situated at the end of a constant base line of known length. These angles are tabulated in the plotting room where the position of the ship is found.

From drawing by Master Gunner Kuhn.

A typical battery command.

ONE BATTERY DEFENSE.

# OUR CIVIL DAY

## ITS ARRIVAL ON AND PROGRESS AROUND THE EARTH

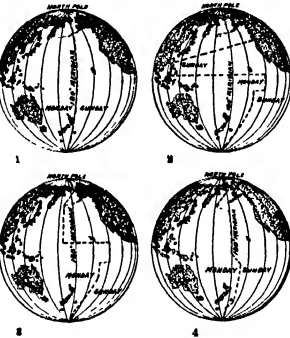
BY DANIEL ARTHUR

A few generations before our era the "whole known world" was only some 25 million square miles in extent instead of nearly 200 millions as we now know. That great observer and geographer, Ptolemaeus, made a noble attempt about 25 B. C. to draw a map of the "World." It even used lines which looked very like parallels of latitude and of longitude. These lines were largely based on the speed records of travellers and hence were not very accurate. There was no such refinement as his maps as to irrational date lines or time zones. His general outline of the "whole world" was about 80 deg. wide east and west by 60 deg. long north and south. It was all above our equator, and extended only about a quarter of the way around the earth. The month of the changes was farthest east and what is now Ireland was farthest west. The Caspian Sea was thought to be an arm of the Northern Ocean, with the lower end of the Red Sea as about the southern limit. Knowledge of the rest of the world grew very slowly then, as was shown by the fact that the great Straits are a map of the "World" two hundred years ago (about 25 B. C.) and made no material extension of its lines. It pushed Great Britain and Ireland farther west and made some radical changes on the northern edge of the Mediterranean, but other than these two things of two hundred years ago are practically the same. There is very little doubt, however, that Ptolemy thought the world to be round, before he died. Thus the necessity for a date line was felt even at this early date.

While the spherical earth idea was passing through its hundreds of years of resistance, some radical observers started it skulking on its side as to speak. They were bold men, but they proved their case. This brought the date line as a necessity closer to us. It would almost seem that with a "flat disk world" converted into a stationary globe, and later into a rotating globe the date line idea should have suggested itself at once. Not so, however, for it appears that when Magellan rounded the Atlantic from the east he passed around South America, crossed the Pacific, discovered the Philippine Islands, and went home around the lower end of Africa thus completing a trip around the world. This trip was made less than four hundred years ago, yet when the explorer arrived at their home country they were astonished to find that they carried a date on board their ships which was a day earlier than the home date. It was soon found that no mistake were made on the log books as to the time records and that the home calendar was certainly correct. The explanation of this seems

to a set of questions sent by the writer. The map, together with the questions and the answers, will be found on a recent Pacific chart issued by the Navy Department. To describe the line, commencing at the northern end, it will be seen that the first deflection of practice is to the east, to give the tip of Siberia the same date as the rest of the Russian em-

1914, to bring these islands into accord with the date of the countries east of the Cape of Good Hope. When Alaska was accepted by the United States the date line was transferred west of that territory or into Bering Strait. These two radical changes made the line of practice look more like the third diagram in Fig. 1. Refer to Fig. 3, which is intended to show the entrance of time on our globe. The picture illustrates a mechanical delivery of our civil day, month, year, or century by means of an equatorial tape. Let us assume that the earth is stationary and that this tape enters and departs under the date-line rollers as shown. If the tape had a speed of about 1,040 miles per hour and was properly marked in hours, days, months, etc., it would show just how our civil day enters the earth and progresses around it with a constant motion. The illustration shows the front end of the twentieth century as having completed 18 hours of its first day on earth, leaving only 6 hours of the nineteenth century to glide toward the time and off, to no one knows where. The front end of January 2nd will have reached the earth's time door to enter it just as December 31st steps out, as it were. Then we have the twentieth century all over the earth with January 1st reducing its equatorial width at the rate of some 17 miles per minute and January 2nd growing broader at the same velocity. This of course is assuming that time is entering normally and not by the arbitrary intermittent steps that we will call the twenty-four way stations of our civil day. This latter system is in successful operation in the United States and two or three other leading nations, China being one of the more recent converts to the hourly zone system.



1 Theoretical date line. 2 Date line when Alaska took date of Russia and Philippines took it of Spain. 3 Date line after purchase of Alaska and Philippines took latest date. 4 Present international date line.

### Fig. 1—The evolution of the international date line

Then after the line passes through Bering Strait it bears to the west, crossing the true line of 180 deg. and far enough beyond it to take in all of the Aleutian Islands to the American date, after which it turns back to 180 deg. where it stays until it crosses the equator a few degrees, at which point it again defects eastward to give the Tonga Islands the date of Australia. The line then returns to the 180th meridian and continues on that line to the south pole.

The foregoing is the "international date line" of

Fig. 3 shows the earth with the hourly time belts or zones outlined from pole to pole. The line draws are 10 deg. apart and represent the boundary lines of these zones and give their centers. Fig. 4 is the same as before as viewed from the north star in both illustrations the United States are outlined in approximately the correct location, so as to show the theoretical boundary lines of the hourly zones as applied to that country. Now in these two illustrations let us assume that the system has been adopted in all parts of the world. Commencing with the prime meridian at Greenwich as the center of a zone bounded by lines 7½ deg. east and 7½ deg. west, the completion of such a set of lines would give us just what is drawn and what our United States are actually using in theory. To illustrate mechanically the delivery of time on this plan, our equatorial tape is intermittent

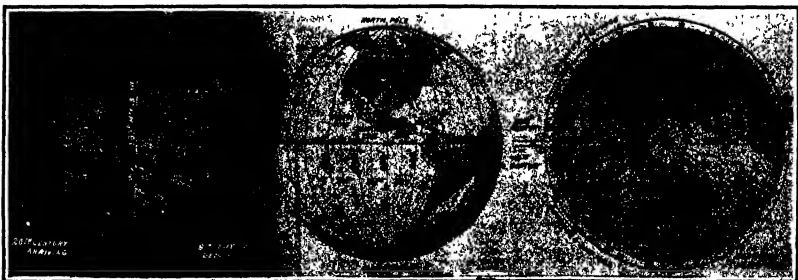


Fig. 2.

Fig. 3.

Fig. 4.

Now the twentieth century was entered in—a mechanical parallel.

### OUR CIVIL DAY—ITS ARRIVAL ON AND PROGRESS AROUND THE EARTH.

ing impossibility was soon forthcoming, and our date line was born in fact.

As he once wanted the line near his home or country, it was put in the most out-of-the-way place possible, where it still stays. The 180th degree meridian is in theory where each new civil day is born, but in practice it has never been strictly adhered to. Fig. 1 diagram 4, shows its location with the deflections of practice as they now exist on the official map at Washington. This map was made by the Hydrographic Office of the United States to illustrate its replies

practice at the present time, but in former generations the deflections were considerably greater, as for example the one shown in the second diagram of Fig. 1. In this date line Alaska was taken into the day of Russia, to which empire it formerly belonged. The line then took a westerly sweep of thousands of miles to take the Philippine Islands under the date as written in Spain. This latter wide deflection was afterward turned back or corrected by the action of the Governor-General of the Philippines when he decreed that December 31st, 1844, be reckoned as January 1st,

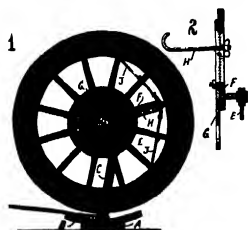
In its action, that is to say, it jumps 1,040 miles and then stands still for an hour, which means that on the twenty-fourth jump on any day of a given name, that (Continued on page 307)

\*While writing this article it has come to my notice that Olli of North America has given me some ideas on 17 minutes ahead of United States eastern time, to quote the International Journal, the Ollians were unable to find the same 17 minutes ahead of time. This was accomplished by being a day at 180° A. M. on a given day and adding 17 minutes. This means that New York or Washington, D. C., may come ahead in time to Ollians being in time zone of any other time zone.



NOVEL AUTOMOBILE PUMP

Pictured in the accompanying engraving is an interesting form of pump, that may be used for inflating an automobile tire. The device is arranged to be operated by the automobile itself. It consists of a base *A*, on which is mounted a wheel used to raise an automobile axle so that the wheel will clear the ground. The base *A* carries a shoe *B*, which is designed to assist in positioning the automobile wheel with respect to the pumping device before the jack is operated to raise it. The pump is indicated at *C*, and is mounted to rock on a bolt *D*. The pump piston *E* is connected to the automobile wheel by a device shown clearly in the cross-sectional view (Fig.



NOVEL AUTOMOBILE PUMP

3) A slotted plate *F* is provided with teeth adapted to engage similar teeth on a slotted plate *G*. The plate *G* is provided with a crank pin, to which the piston rod *H* is connected. The plate *G* is provided with an apertured extension, adapted to fit over the axle of the automobile wheel. The plate *F* is attached to one of the spokes of the wheel by means of a hook *I*. While a pair of hinged braces *J* are used to connect it with two more spokes of the wheel. In this way a rigid connection with the wheel is secured. By lowering the thumb nut on the hook *I* the plate *F* may be moved up or down on plate *G* so as to adjust the parts to wheels of different sizes. The distance from the crank pin to the center of the wheel, however, is fixed. In use the automobile engine is operated to rotate the wheel, and this action carries the piston up and down in a cylinder, the latter rocking back and forth to accommodate itself to the lateral throw of the crank pin. A flexible tube connects the pump with the tire that is to be inflated. By this arrangement a tire may be inflated very rapidly, and the inflation carried to a further degree than is possible by the manual operation. By using a speed of inflation of any of the well-known types, the bursting of tires due to excessive pressure may be avoided. This inventor of this automobile pump is Dr. Richard A. Gault of San Antonio, Texas.

COLLECTION BOX FOR MAIL CRUTCHES.

Collection boxes at the terminal of mail routes are frequently filled to such an extent before the mail is removed that when the collection is made the mail tumbles out of the box on opening the box door and falls to the floor in spite of every precaution taken by the collector. To better this bothersome condition a box has recently been devised which is provided with a platform having foldable side walls that permit the platform to swing downward when the door of the box is opened and serve to prevent the mail matter from falling from the box. The construction of this



COLLECTION BOX FOR MAIL CRUTCHES.

box is clearly shown in the accompanying engraving. Fig. 1 shows the box door open with the platform *A* swung down horizontally. The platform is provided with two side wall plates *B*, rigidly secured thereto and a series of corner shaped plates *C*. Near the forward edge of each of the plates *B* and *C* is a groove *D* adapted to receive a pin mounted on the adjacent plate, while at the opposite ends the plates of each side wall are mounted on a common hinge pin. This permits the side walls to close up somewhat after the manner of a fan to the position indicated in Fig. 2. The interior sector *E* is provided with a lug *F*, which engages a lip formed at the top of the box and limits the outward swing of the platform *A*. To prevent the letters from dropping between the sector plates the top of the box is provided with two guards *F* which extend below the upper edge of the plates. In use when the platform is lowered the letters in the box will tumble out through the door opening and will be caught by the platform and side walls. The inventor of this collection box for mail crutches is Mr. R. E. Edwards, care of T. J. Kelly, 19 South Eleventh Street, Lincoln, Neb.

A NEW SOUNDING BOARD FOR PIANOS.

The soul of a piano is its sounding board. That sounding board is composed of wood carefully selected and carefully seasoned so that it will remain constant in quality for the many years during which a piano is used. It is arched or crowned against the pressure of the strings so that the strings and the sound board may vibrate in harmony. As the piano ages the sounding board flattens. In an upright piano this flattening is accompanied by "buckling back" or cracking. The result is that hard, brittle-sounding "tin-jenny" tone so characteristic of old pianos. It is obvious that if some means were provided for permanently arching the sounding board against the pressure of the strings, the piano ought to maintain its tone for years without any tendency of the sounding board to sag.

The attempt has been made frequently. Some success has been attained in grand pianos by the employment of tension rods radiating from a center hub to the sounding board rim, but so far as we are aware no one has ever successfully equipped the upright piano with a sounding board so constructed that it would not lose its arch in time. A sounding board of this type which has been successfully applied to an upright piano has recently been invented by Mr. Frank B. Long of Los Angeles, Cal., and is illustrated in the accompanying engraving.



TENSION DEVICE FOR PIANO SOUNDING BOARDS

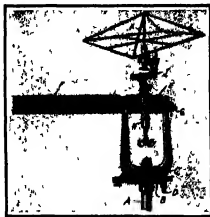
When we consider the true function of the sounding board of a piano. The sounding board serves to sustain and amplify the tone produced when a hammer strikes the strings. Mr. Long has increased the tone sustaining and amplifying quality of the sounding board by flexible reinforcing means interposed between the sounding board and the sounding board frame, thus equalizing the flexibility of the sounding board and at the same time maintaining its relation to the sounding board frame, so that the greatest possible vitality of the sounding board is insured. From the accompanying illustration, which shows the front of an upright piano with Mr. Long's sounding board in position, it will be observed that the edge of the sounding board is subjected to pressure from screw posts interposed between the edge of the sounding board and the heavy back frame. The pressure is exerted in such a manner as to cause reflection and condensation of sound waves in accordance with the principles suggested by Helmholtz in his work on "Resonance of Sounds." Besides creating this reflecting effect, the pressure post serves the additional purpose of maintaining the crowned sounding board in its original form. The back frame supporting the sounding board is reinforced by diagonal tension rods placed across each corner, as shown in the illustration. The edge of the sounding board is rabbeted and glued into a continuous laminated rim built up of hard maple runners or layers so as to produce an

exceedingly strong construction, which, however, is sufficiently flexible to yield under the pressure posts, with a view to equalizing the outward pressure on the sounding board resulting from the stretching of the strings over the surface. By the use of screw posts, any shrinkage or expansion of the sounding board and the rim can readily be equalized so as to preserve the tone and even to amplify it. The arrangement is such that a proper reflection of the vibrations of the sounding board by the strings is equalized to reflect the tone.

As a result of this new combination of sounding board rim and pressure posts a small upright piano can produce a tone which is comparable with that of a small grand piano, and the full round tone of the new upright piano is preserved, because the sounding board is maintained in its original arch position.

EDUCATIONAL APPLIANCES FOR DISPLAYING OBJECTS.

In the instruction of projection mechanical drawing, descriptive geometry, etc., it is important to be



EDUCATIONAL APPLIANCES FOR DISPLAYING OBJECTS.

able to show students a deviation model of an object, large enough to be seen by an entire class, and which will show front and side elevations as well as plan and bottom views. Heretofore this has been done by using a glass box within which the object was placed, or by using wire screens for the sides of a box, which permitted the teacher to chalk mark the outline of the object. An improvement on this system is offered by the invention illustrated, heretofore the model stands a stand provided with axes that have automatic stops at quarter revolutions to arrest the model in various positions. The apparatus comprises a vertical shaft *A*, on which is mounted a table *B* that carries a support *C*, provided with a pair of upwardly extending arms. The support *C* has in its lower part four recesses adapted to receive a spring pressed stop pin *D*. The recesses are positioned at quarter revolutions of the support. Mounted in the arms of the support is a shaft on which are secured the square blocks *E* and *F*. The block *E* is formed with four recesses adapted to receive the pin *D*. The blocks are adapted to receive a clamp *H* that carries the display stand. Model *K* is shown supported on the stand. The display stand may be moved about on three axes which are fitted with index wheels so as to incline or turn the model about in any desired angle. The inventor of this educational appliance who is Mr. Hermann Hauslein of 2013 Mohawk Street, Chicago, Ill., informs us that he has used this display apparatus effectively in his own classes.

INVENTED DETACHABLE WINDOW VENTILATOR.

The ventilator which is illustrated in the accompanying engraving may be detachably secured to the window sash so that the window may be opened a short distance to permit the entrance and escape of



INVENTED DETACHABLE WINDOW VENTILATOR.

air. Furthermore, the ventilator is provided with an automatic damper, which acts to prevent the entrance of unusually strong currents of air and is fitted with a buffer which serves to keep out rain or snow. The casing of the ventilator, as indicated in Fig. 1, is quadrant in section, and is fitted into a bracket at each end and secured to the window casing. The lower edge of the casing is provided at *D* with a lip that engages the sill of the window. Extending lengthwise of the ventilator is a bar *E*, which is fastened at each end to the window casing. This bar is provided for two packing strips *F* and *G* which extend in opposite directions. The packing strip *F* is adapted to fit against the south of the window, while the other strip *G* serves as a buffer for the damper. At the opposite side of casing there is a vertical extension *H* which serves as a buffer. The screw *I* stretches from the base of this extension to the bar *E*, and serves to keep out foreign bodies that may be drawn into the ventilator by the blast of air. The damper is indicated at *K*, and consists of a plate bent back upon itself at *J* to form a reinforcing bar, while the inner end *K* is weighted so that the damper will normally come to a balance on the axle *L*. When the window is raised the damper swings to its horizontal position as indicated, but if a strong draft blows through the ventilator it will strike the under side of the inner part of the damper, lifting it up until the wind is strong enough, it strikes the buffer *E*. When the window is closed it positively closes the damper by bearing against the under portion *H*. The brackets on which the casing is mounted are extensible so as to permit of using a standard length of ventilator with windows of different size. Each bracket is formed with a spring extension *A*, provided with a lug which is adapted to engage a stop pin on the window sash, and prevent the window from being raised too high. Should it be desired to raise the window further it is a simple matter to withdraw the spring catch *M*. The inventor of this ventilator is Louis M. Hill, care of the Economy Ventilating Co. Metropolitan Tower, New York.

#### TESTING MACHINE

The machine pictured herewith is designed to cut cylindrical lenses on the end of a wooden shaft, particularly for use in window blinds.



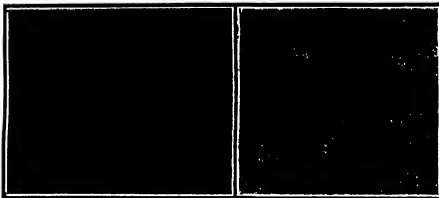
TESTING MACHINE.

usually are provided with a single central tenon, but there is another type in which two tenons are used, and sometimes the slit is provided with three tenons. The machine is designed to form any of these types of slits. It consists of a base *A* provided with a central bracket *B* formed with two bearings *C* in which is mounted an arbor shaft. The arbor shaft is provided with a pulley *D* between the bearings, and may be fitted with tools, such as shown at *E* and *F*, which depend for their form upon the nature of the work which they are to do. Opposite each end of the arbor shaft is a pedestal *G* fitted with a head *J*. In our illustration the head is broken away at the left hand side of the machine to reveal the interior construction. A cross-sectional view of the head is also shown in Fig. 2. The head is formed with an interior web *K*, and the web is formed with a pair of channels that intersect at the center of the head. At the upper end of the vertical channel and at one end of the horizontal channel is a spring such as shown in Fig. 1, which may be adjusted by means of the screws *L* and *M*, to bear against the work which is placed in the slit. It will be understood that the head *J* is revolvable within the pedestal *G*. This pedestal is connected to the base *A* by means of a pair of channels that intersect in the base plate thus permitting of a lateral adjustment. In use *N* and is inserted in one of the channels in the web *K*, and the end of the slit is brought into contact with one of the cutters on the arbor shaft. The pedestal is adjusted laterally so that the center of the slit is out of alignment with the axis of the tool and then when the slit is fed against the tool and the head *J* is revolved a circular tenon will be cut in

the end of the slit. If a large tool is used all the wood will be cut away except a single tenon, but if a smaller tool is used a central tenon may be cut, leaving enough wood projecting at each end of the slit to form two more tenons. In this way a slit with three tenons can be formed, and by properly choosing the size of the tool and laterally adjusting the pedestal the slit may be formed with two tenons. The inventor of this slit tenoning machine is Mr. José Ojanguera, Calles del Monte, No. 356, Havana, Cuba.

#### IMPROVED JACK BLOCK

When the journal bearings or brasses of a railroad



IMPROVED JACK BLOCK.

car become worn it is necessary to lift the journals by means of jacks so that the brasses may be removed from the car axle, and be replaced with new ones. When operating the jack it sometimes happens that the car wheel is lifted with the journal and derailed. The purpose of the invention illustrated in the accompanying engraving is to provide a device which will hold the wheel down while the journal is being lifted, and form a level surface for the jack to rest upon. The jack block is preferably made of malleable cast iron or steel, and is constructed in the form of a grating with the edges sloped or corrugated so as to insure lightness without unduly weakening the structure. At one end of the block is provided with a toe *C*, which is adapted to fit over the rim of the car wheel. The jack block is rested on one of the sills of the railroad, and the jack is seated on the upper face of the block, close to the extension *B*. When the wheel is lifted the toe *C* will rest on the rail, relieving the upper journal bearing of the weight of the car and permitting the wedge and brasses to be removed. For convenience in carrying the block about a handle *D* is arranged on one side of the body of the block, the location being such that the block is balanced when lifted. The inventor of this jack block is Mr. James Allen Gray of Coeur d'Alene, Idaho.

**RINGING CHIMES BY PERFORATED RUBBER SHEETS.**  
The idea of the piano inventors of the automatic piano player, Mr. John McTammany of New York city, has devised a system of ringing chimes of bells by perforated paper music sheets, such as are employed in piano-playing mechanisms. Mr. McTammany's scheme was evolved as part of a huge memorial to be erected to the memory of the men who fell in the civil war. The memorial assumed the form of a monument in which each State was to place two bells. To ring such an extensive a chime by hand would obviously be a task involving superhuman muscular power. Even the present mechanical and electrical methods would probably fail because of their complexity. Hence, Mr. McTammany devised the very ingenious system which is here illustrated.

The perforated music sheet *A* is guided by a roll *B*, and passes over a grooved rail *C*. The pins of a driving wheel *D* are adapted to engage the perforations of the music sheet *A*. The pin wheel *D* is operatively connected by means of a dog *E*, a connecting rod *F*, a rear shaft *G*, a connecting rod *H*, and an angle pin wheel *J*, with a primary cap wheel *K*, which operates

with the secondary star wheel *L*. The primary and secondary star wheels *L* and *M* are loosely mounted on collars on their respective shafts, and are housed between separators *N* in such a manner as to prevent them from shifting thereon, yet leaving them free to rotate with the shaft whenever it may be necessary for them to do so in the driving mechanism. The star wheel *L* is provided with teeth on its periphery, which teeth are adapted to engage rods projecting from the star wheel *M*, whenever the star wheel *L* is released by the angle trigger *D*. The teeth of the star wheel *L* engage a slide *O*, connected with a retractile spring-controlled clapper *P*, which rings

the bell *R*. The several shafts illustrated are geared together in such a manner as to cause the several parts to co-operate in definite order.

A tooth of the wheel *D* having entered a groove of the foot roll *C* through a perforation in the music sheet *A*, the wheel *D* turns on its shaft. In so doing it engages the dog *E*, which in turn through the connecting rods *F* and *H* trips the angle trigger *D*, thus releasing the secondary star wheel *L*, which, by the friction of its shaft, rotates into engagement with the slide *O*, thereby pulling the slide down and withdrawing the clapper from the bell. When the slide is released by the teeth of the star wheel *L*, the retractile spring of the clapper is released, so that the clapper deals its stroke and rings the bell as the parts return to their normal positions. The wheel *D* strikes the foot roll, and is prevented from rotating again when one of its teeth fits into a perforation of

**RINGING CHIMES BY PERFORATED RUBBER SHEETS.**  
the sheet and into the grooved rail, which turns the primary star wheel one degree.

The playing of the bells can be governed by clock mechanism, so as to strike the quarters and the hours and to play airs at stated intervals.

A new form of mercury interrupter has recently been invented in which there are no reciprocating parts, but the interruptions are produced by a ripple formed in a stream of mercury. The mercury is contained in a revolving vessel within which a contact piece is fixed. The mercury is thrown by centrifugal force to the inner periphery of the vessel. At one point the stream of mercury is obliged to pass over a deflector, producing a ripple or wave, and the contact piece dips into the mercury stream at this point as it revolves with the vessel. The frequency of the interruptions may be varied by making the deflector revolve slowly in the same direction as the vessel is revolving, or in the opposite direction, as hitting it

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# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

R.T.P.U.D

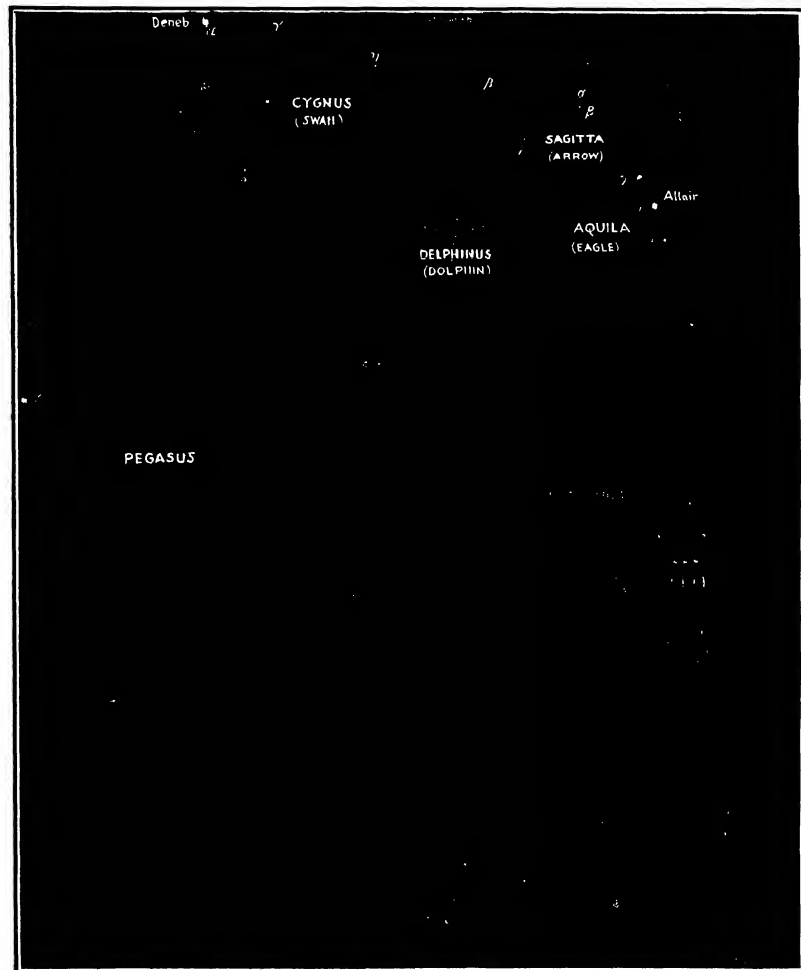
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**A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS**

Vol. CXL—No. 16.  
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Halley's comet is now visible to the naked eye in the eastern skies, just before dawn. Its appearance on May 2nd, one hour before sunrise, is here depicted.  
HALLEY'S COMET AT ITS BRIGHTEST.—(See page 817)



ENGINEERING.

The Minister of Public Works of Panama will shortly call for bids for the construction of a railroad from Panama to David, a distance of 200 miles. Bids will be asked also for the line from David to Bozota del Toro, and from Panama to Los Santos.

The Navy Department recommends an appropriation of \$10,000 for prizes, etc., to be awarded ships in competition for prizes in the construction of a ship for consumption. It is estimated by the Department that competitors of this character have resulted, and will continue to result, in a saving of ten per cent in coal consumption.

In spite of the steady increase in passenger travel in this city, the opening of the new East River bridge is beginning to tell heavily upon the traffic over the East River ferries. The Union Ferry Company of Brooklyn has been obliged to discharge three boat crews, and change the schedule on three different lines from a 10-minute to a 30-minute headway.

Acting on the recommendation of the Public Service Commission, the Interborough Company of this city will install cars with destination signs on the elevated lines, which will automatically tell the name of the station the train is approaching. The great convenience of this system, and the traveling public will be out of all proportion to the small cost of putting it in place.

The British Navy estimates for the present year call for five bathtubs of the draught-type, five portable cranes of 25 tons each, one electric derrick, a number of submarines, and two floating docks. In refitting the ships to be laid down this year, the draught-type hull or building for the three leading naval powers are for Great Britain, 27, Germany, 17, United States, 10.

Speaking on the subject of defective open-hearth rails, at the last annual convention of the American Society for Testing Materials, Robert J. Hughes emphasized the fact that the mere term "open hearth" is in itself no guarantee that the rails made under that system will give good service, since they are subject to the same general defects of manufacture as Bessemer rails, and hence require equal care during rolling etc.

The Pennsylvania Railroad recently ran its first Pullman train from Harrison, N. J., by way of its new tunnel system to Long Island and return. It will be three or four months before the new tunnel system is thrown open for public service. The tunnels to Long Island, unless the plans of the company miscarry, will be publicly opened on April 1, and those to the westward under the Hudson River by about the 15th of July.

The Army Board is making some important experiments to determine the resisting power of a solid mass of concrete, as compared with that of a concrete test with a 15-inch gun, a shot was fired which penetrated the concrete for a distance of 31 feet, which is equivalent to the piercing of a 15-inch armor plate. The target is now being reconstructed for tests with the new 14-inch gun, which it is expected will give over better results.

The Director of the Royal Dockyard at Castellamare, Italy, has pronounced, if the reports are to be believed, a torpedo boat without finna. By means of electrical ventilators the products of combustion are discharged from the vessel without the assistance of smokestacks. The first experiments, on a trip from Castellamare to Naples, were successful, but the second, though successful, no smoke being shown and the vessel going up steam with great rapidity.

The shortage or surplage of freight cars is one of the reliable indications of business activity. If not of business prosperity. The surplus of freight cars which existed at the time of the panic in November, 1907, was gradually reduced until it was wiped out in the autumn of 1909. To-day, not only is there no surplus, but the indications are that during the coming season there will be a large shortage, due to the steadily increasing volume of business.

The Hudson and Manhattan Railroad Company has built two steel cars which are specially designed for transporting baggage between the steam railway terminals, which are served by the Hudson River tunnels. With a view to arriving extra handling and trucking, each car is arranged to receive eight loaded baggage trucks, which are loaded and unloaded between platform and car or over folding steel plate aprons, which form part of the permanent attachments of the car.

The Italian Canal Commission has called for the manufacture, delivery, and erection of about 50,000 tons of steel parts, and the construction of the system of the forty-six mitering lock gates of two leaves each on the PANAMA Canal. These are the largest lock gates ever built. They are all about 66 feet wide, and vary from 47 feet to 66 feet in height. When all placed the other on end they would make a tower 1,175 miles in height. The contract will be worth about \$2,000,000.

ELECTRICITY.

At Harvard University a wireless telephone club has been formed with a view to studying wireless telegraphy, and one of the special objects is to demonstrate some method of overcoming amateur interference.

Some time ago the United States Steel Corporation installed two Heroult furnaces, one at Worcester, Mass., and the other at South Chicago. These furnaces have been in constant service ever since doing twelve heats per day. It requires between an hour and an hour and a half to refine a metric ton of steel and 100 kilowatt hours are consumed to dephosphorize and desulphurize the metal. The cost of repairs on the furnace has amounted to about six cents per ton of steel, and the electrodes are consumed at the rate of six pounds per ton.

A test of the telephone service in Wisconsin was recently made by a commission. The investigation was carried on secretly, so as to determine the actual conditions of service. It was found that the average time between a call and a response was 478 seconds. The quietest average response came in 73 seconds and the slowest in 773 seconds. Those exchanges which most quickly responded to a call were found to be more efficient in every other respect as well, so that this single test provided a gauge of the service offered by the exchange.

It is remarkable that while wireless telegraphy has made rapid strides very important considerations have been almost entirely neglected. Much attention has been paid to attunement and selectivity and also to the refinement of instruments while the development of the antenna has been slow. At the receiving station particularly not much has been done toward locating the antenna wires so as to intercept a maximum of wave energy. Aside from Britain's fan-shaped grid which marked an epoch very little along this line has been extensively adopted in practice.

A telephone cable loaded with Pupin coils was laid in Lake Constance in 1906. This was a lead-covered cable and it was very difficult to lay it on account of its great weight. Mr. Dolewirth, who laid the cable has been experimenting with loaded submarine telephone cables and has evolved a construction which is to be used across the English Channel to connect London with Paris. The cable is covered with gutta percha and wire sheathing and the loading coils have been introduced so ingeniously as to increase the weight of the cable from one pound to one and a half. So gradually is the cable swelled at the loading points, that it can be paid out over a four foot sheave where the cable has been twisted in salt water for fifteen months, and from time to time has been subjected to pressures of four tons per square inch.

A series of tests has recently been made to determine the strength of the metallic filaments of lamps and their resistance to shock. The lamps were tested by placing them at the bottom of inclined planes, and rolling rubber balls filled with lead down the plane. The shock was varied by starting the balls at different distances from the lamps. It was found that with lamps of equal voltage the strength of the filament varied inversely as the candle-power and for lamps of equal candle-power the strength varied inversely as the voltage. In some lamps it was found that certain parts were more sensitive to shock than the filaments. When the filaments were heated to a white heat they became too flexible to be broken by a shock, but the loops were distorted under repeated blows until they became too hot to handle. The resistance of filaments of white wire is the object of a paper presented to the Académie des Sciences by Messrs. Maurin and Warcollier. Previously they studied the action of ultra violet rays from a quartz mercury vapour lamp upon the filament. In construction the same apparatus they made researches upon sparkling white wire and found how much time it took for the wire to act upon different thicknesses of layer, so as to determine the forming principle and thus prevent any new fermentation. Using layers of wire of 1/4 millimeter (0.01 inch) held between a 0.8 inch quartz plate and a glass plate and exposed to the lamp so that the layer was 1.6 inches distant from the lamp that fermentation was stopped in all cases for an exposure of about 10 seconds and never for an exposure below 5 seconds. With 17 millimeters (0.67 inch) the fermentation stopped at the same distance from the lamp. Fermentation was always stopped after an exposure of over 1 minute and never in less than 30 seconds. It is to be noted that in the case of pure wire, the same results were obtained with a 1/4 inch layer of wire for the first mentioned thickness of layer, and sterilization is not reached even after 15 minutes exposure for a 0.04 inch layer. Thus it will be seen that the sterilization of white wire is actually carried out than that of silver, this being no doubt due to the fact that the wire is more transparent to ultra-violet rays.

SCIENCE.

Prof. Hillebrand's tablet, said to uphold the Biblical account of the Deluge, was discussed at a meeting of the American Oriental Society at the Johns Hopkins University, Prof. A. H. Hall, of the Johns Hopkins, Prof. Paul Haupt of Johns Hopkins University, and Prof. Albert T. Clay of Yale University, thought that Hillebrand had been too imaginative in interpreting the fragments of the tablet. It was stated that the restoration made by Prof. Hillebrand in fillings in broken lines were conjectural emendations. Prof. Hillebrand's claim that the tablet was written some time between 2500 and 2000 B. C. in the Mesopotamian dialect, it being stated that the tablet belongs to a much later period.

The perfume and flavor of vanilla are due to a substance called vanillin, which also occurs as an ingredient of numerous resins. Vanillin has been made synthetically by Tiemann and Maarmann from coumarin, a glycoside which is found in various species of coulters. The same chemists subsequently made the commercial synthesis of vanillin possible by substituting sugar for coulters. The price of vanillin has fallen from \$770 per pound in 1876 to 44 per pound in 1909. A further reduction is scarcely possible because of the high prices of sugar. Hence chemists have been experimenting in another direction and Gayot and Gray have applied to the preparation of vanillin the general methods of the synthesis of coumarin. Vanillin has recently been discovered by Gayot. Their experiments are described in a recent number of the Bulletin de la Société de Chimie.

The price of pure natural rubber, which in 1903 was 80 cents per pound, rose last year to \$2.25 per pound. This increase in price gives additional interest to the processes of regeneration of waste rubber and of the manufacture of substitutes. The regeneration of vulcanized Indian rubber consists in removing the sulphur, which was added to the process of vulcanization. The scrap rubber is sorted according to quality and is treated either with sulphuric acid or with alkali, for the purpose of destroying the fibre of cloth, etc., and of removing the greater part of the sulphur. The material is then ground and washed. This regenerating India rubber is only available in small proportions to new rubber. Artificial imitation rubber is made by methods which resemble the process of vulcanizing natural India rubber, for example by treating flaxseed oil with sulphur or sulphur chloride.

One of the most interesting results of the Smithsonian African Expedition has just been published by Mr. G. H. Miller Jr., curator of the Division of Mammals. It is a description of a new species of Hippopotamus. Description of a New Species of Hippopotamus. There have been for some years in the collection of the National Museum two skulls of hippopotamuses, one of which was from the East African Expedition and the other from Angola West Africa. These skulls differed materially in several details of form, but they were in the restricted shape of the rostrum but the characters were not deemed of sufficient value to justify the creation of a new species for the different cases might have been due to individual variations. The receipt of eight skulls from British East Africa collected by the Smithsonian African Expedition showed conclusively that the individual variations were so slight in the East African specimens that Mr. Miller was led to believe that the two skulls represented a single species and not two distinct species, one from West Africa. A critical study of the skulls revealed other differences in their characters that were of sufficient importance to justify Mr. Miller in making a new species of hippopotamus distinct from the one to which he gives the name *crassirostris*.

The bag bags of modern balloons are made of a cotton fabric coated with India rubber in the most careful manner, in order to secure perfect impermeability without sacrificing lightness. For all large balloons, and especially for dirigible two layers of cloth are superposed and cemented together. The outer skin is covered with India rubber, and the inner skin is coated on both sides. In German balloons the inner canvas is cut straight and the outer canvas is cut bias. In this construction pores with angles of 45 degrees to the surface of the canvas, which causes a slight increase in weight. French balloon makers prefer to cut both canvases straight. Experiments show that the tensile strength of the canvas is not increased by the superposition of the two layers. These facts method of construction has its advantages and its defects. As India rubber, even when vulcanized, is attacked by exposure to light, the canvas is covered with a thin layer of India rubber, and ultra violet rays, which are the most active. The pigment used in France is chromatic of lead, which unfortunately must be applied to the canvas before it is coated with rubber, and is much consequently equal to the vulcanization of the rubber, because the chromatic of lead is blacked by heat. Pierre acid is now from this objection, but its employment is too dangerous.

## THE "VIKING"—SELF-DUMPING DECK SCOW.

BY THE ENGINEERING DEPARTMENT OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

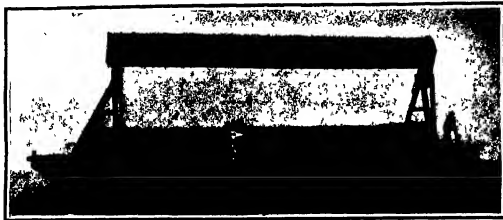
A novel system of self-dumping scows is especially designed for the discharge of rock and solid debris has been devised by Mr. A. F. Viking, engineer and ship-builder of Stockholm. At this point the economical dumping of such material into the water is of particular interest inasmuch as the floating of rock in

equilibrium of the latter is upset merely by forcing water through the agency of compressed air into the elevated tank, which causes the scow to fill over and about its load. Should the flush deck be fitted with low bulwarks, these are fashioned in the form of hot ton hinged doors on the discharging side, so that they fall down as the barge heels over, and permit the load to be shot cleanly

compressed-air vessel is also connected to this valve box, but is shut off from the same until ready for dumping. The third vessel below the elevated cylinder, as already mentioned, is always open to the free atmosphere through a pipe, but there is a second pipe and valve provided in connection with the main communicating pipe between the first water tank and the elevated cylinder. It will thus be seen that there is always open communication between the first water tank and the elevated cylinder by means of a main pipe which is carried up along the vertical leg of the tripod at one end. In addition there is a smaller air pipe running up one of the triangular legs and passing right into the body of the tank, having its outlet near the top of the cylinder itself. This pipe is in connection with the outer atmosphere, so that normally the upper vessel is full of air.

The load is stowed on deck in the manner shown in the illustration. When rock is landed on bulwarks on three sides only are necessary, the fourth side from which dumping is effected, below the elevated tank, being left quite open or at the most having only a low ridge. If soft material is carried, hinged doors, as already described, may be used, these automatically opening under the pressure from the load on deck when the scow is inclined in the dumping operation, and falling and closing so as not to obstruct the shoot.

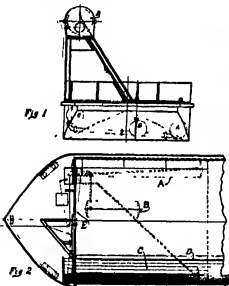
When the loaded barge has been towed to the dumping site, a cord is pulled connecting the mechanism of the scow with the tug. This opens a valve, which permits the compressed air to flow to the valve box, and also a slide valve in the latter, whereby the compressed air is admitted into the lower water vessel A. The pressure exerted forces the water from the lower tank into the elevated cylinder D, the displaced air in the latter escaping, and, as the upper tank becomes charged, the barge loses its equilibrium, heels over on the elevated tank side, and the load slips off the inclined deck into the water. When the load is shot the control cord is again pulled, the slide valve in the



After dumping, the scow returns to an even keel.

connection with the extensions to the harbor or the streets of the city is in continuous progress. Several designs for automatic dumping have been evolved, but the "Viking" system, so called after its designer, has been the first to be submitted to practical test and has proved remarkably successful. Through the courtesy of the inventor we are enabled to illustrate and describe this new barge. It differs in its action from any

In the hold of the scow on the side opposite the elevated cylindrical tank is carried another tubular tank A about half the length of the former. This is filled with water, and in the case of the scow illustrated holds about six tons for a load of 200 tons on the deck. Alongside this water tank is a small cylindrical vessel B containing compressed air the pressure being approximately seven atmospheres. On the same side as the elevated tank in the hold below, is a third cylinder C also about half the length of the elevated



A, B, C, D are ballast tanks by the emptying and filling of which the scow is dumped and righted.

End elevation and half-deck plan of scow.

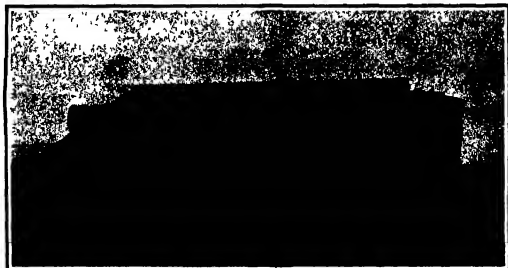
other vessels of this class in service inasmuch as in stead of the contents being dumped through self-opening flap doors in the bottom of the hull the scow is tipped over on its beam ends by a very simple action. The load is carried on a flush deck or the latter is fitted with low bulwarks. On one side, extending the full length of the scow is an elevated cylindrical tank D, mounted about 16 feet above the level of the deck on two tripods. When it is intended to dump the barge, the

cylinder, which at first is empty, but which is always open to the outer atmosphere through a small pipe.

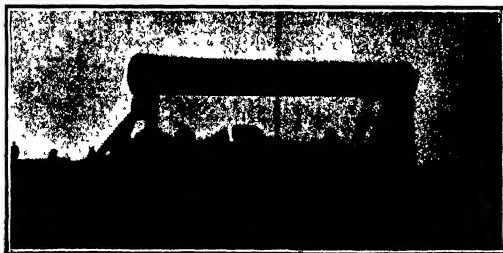
The water vessel A in the body of the pontoon is in open communication by means of a pipe F with the elevated tank, and the former is also in connection by another pipe with a valve box placed at the foot of the tripod carrying the upper tank. When the valve in this box is in its initial position, this second communicating pipe is open to the free atmosphere. The

valve box is returned to its normal position, cutting off the supply of compressed air to the lower water tank, and at the same time opening the latter to the free air.

The load may slip off the deck at varying inclinations, this factor depending on the friction between the load and the deck and the character of the debris. If the alighting takes place early, at a low deck inclination, the upper cylinder may never reach the water, for the scow rights itself immediately the load is discharged. Should such result, the water forced into the elevated tank returns to the lower water tank directly the compressed-air supply to the latter is cut off by the second pull of the cord controlling the mechanism. It may happen, however, that the scow heels right over and the upper tank is brought into the water, the barge thus floating in an inclined position. To bring it back to the upright position a third pull is given to the control rope, which at once opens the communication between the upper tank D and the water vessel C placed immediately below it in the hold. As this latter tank is always placed in a position lower than the elevated cylinder, the water must flow by gravitation into it. When a sufficient quantity of water has passed from the upper to the lower cylinder, the barge rights itself, and the water remaining in the elevated tank as well as that in the tank immediately below, returns to the main water cylinder on the opposite side of the vessel in the hold, by gravitation. This accomplished, a fourth pull on the control cord returns all parts to their original position. The compressed air is admitted into its vessel by means of a hose coupled to a valve in the top of the air chest, and when sufficiently charged the valve is closed and the hose removed. When the barge is in its upright position, all water in



The scow tilted and load sliding into the water.



Loaded and ready for dumping.

THE "VIKING"—A SELF-DUMPING DECK SCOW.



the elevated tank, or the one immediately below it, must return to the first tank on the opposite side of the barge, as this latter is placed at the lowest point, the return being purely gravitational. It will also be seen that the water circulating between the tanks cannot escape. Glycoline is mixed with the water to prevent freezing in cold weather, so that the system can be used any time of the year irrespective of climatic conditions.

The scow shown in the accompanying illustrations is in daily service at Stockholm, and has proved eminently satisfactory to the engineers of the port. The results that have been obtained prove that this self-dumping barge is superior to the ordinary hopper type with false bottoms. It is cheaper in first cost and maintenance, can handle rock of practically any size and weight within its total capacity, and is a first-class craft for any harbor transport. If desired, the elevated cylinder can be unaltered in a couple of hours and the barge used as an ordinary lighter. The system is applicable to any type of barge whether of the blunt-ended type or one of fine lines. It is only necessary to insure a sufficient breadth to counteract the influence from the sun's rays, and yet it is the flush-deck type has induced the inventor to extend the idea to craft with sunken holds for handling gravel, mud, and other semi-liquid or soft material, which cannot be accommodated on a flush deck.

#### HALLEY'S COMET AT ITS BRIGHTEST

BY HERBERT NORMAN CORBETT, Ph.D., PROFESSOR OF ASTRONOMY AT PRINCETON UNIVERSITY

It may have seemed remarkable to many people that so long a time has elapsed since the first observation of Halley's comet at its present return, and yet it has not shown itself at all ordinary eyes. The accompanying illustration (Fig. 1) will help to explain this. When first detected last September with very powerful telescopic aid it was far beyond the limits of our diagram, at twice the distance of Mars from the sun, and nearly as remote from the earth. At first the two

nomically speaking, almost over our south pole, and quite invisible from northern latitudes. It therefore appears that the present conditions are almost ideally favorable for observers placed as we are, north of the equator.

The illustration on the first page shows better than any verbal description where to look for the comet in the morning sky in New York. The moon and Venus

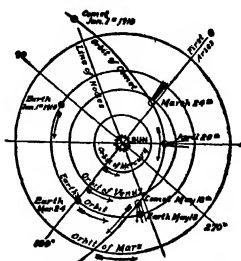


Fig. 1.—RELATIVE POSITIONS OF HALLEY'S COMET, THE EARTH, AND THE SUN

are shown in the positions which they will occupy about May 1st, when, on the whole, the comet can be seen to the best advantage. At an earlier date, Venus was higher in the sky, compared with the comet. These were less trouble than from moonlight, but the comet was not visible so early—about 4 A. M. on April 15th as against 2 A. M. on the later date.

The comet's brightness when it appears in the evening sky about May 20th will be sufficient to render any finding diagram unnecessary. It will only be needful to look toward the west half an hour or more before the comet gets which it does at 8:20 P. M. on the 20th 8:15 on the 21st, and 8:05 on the 22nd, after which it will be clearly visible until after 10 P. M.

Our other illustrations, which appear here through the courtesy of Profs. Frost and Barnard of the Yerkes Observatory show the appearance and character of the comet earlier in its apparition. Fig. 2 illustrates its extreme faintness at the time of its rediagnosis (which was announced by Prof. Wolf of Heidelberg less than a week before the earliest of the four photographs here shown was taken) while it was 60 million miles distant, both from the earth and from the sun. On any one plate it is difficult, if not impossible to distinguish the comet from the multitude of faint stars around it, but on comparing the four (which show exactly the same region of the sky) it is easy to see that the stars are the same in all, while the comet is "here to-day and gone to-morrow."

With the great Yerkes telescope (which gives far smaller and sharper images of the stars than can be reproduced on any known photographic plate) the comet was even at this time quite different from the stars in appearance. In Prof. Barnard's words, "a flick of light surrounded by a faint nebula" with no

definite boundary. His measures, made on several nights, show that its actual diameter was about 12,600 miles.

Our second illustration, from a photograph taken when the comet was 143 million miles from the sun, and 163 million from us, shows it already well advanced in the changes which inevitably accompany the approach of any considerable comet to its perihelion. The head of the comet has become larger—not merely in apparent size, owing to its approach to us but actually in miles, while a faint slender tail, pointed away from the sun, marks its appearance. As in Fig. 1, the tail, which extends directly away from the sun, was at this time also nearly in line behind the head as seen from the earth so that its actual length must have been much greater than it appears to be—about seven million miles, according to Prof. Barnard.

This considerable development of the tail, while the comet was still at two and one-half times its least distance from the sun, makes it probable that at and after the perihelion passage, on April 20th it will be much longer, probably long enough to envelop the earth as it sweeps past.

Our third illustration shows the spectrum of the comet photographed on January 14th, when it was about 170 million miles from the sun.

In taking such a photograph, a prism is placed in front of the camera. The light of a star is thus drawn out into a fine which, by letting it fall on the plate is broadened into a band, crossed by the dark lines which tell us what absorbing gases exist in the star's atmosphere. Most of the objects on the plate are the spectra of stars near the comet obtained in this way. The comet's spectrum is near the middle between the two very broad and conspicuous comparison spectra, which were produced by superposing exposures on some bright star, and serves as reference marks to find the position of the lines in the spectrum of the comet itself. The latter unlike that of the stars consists

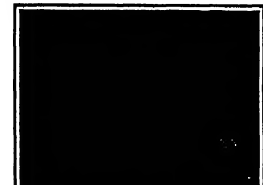


Fig. 4.—Spectrum of Halley's comet

Photographed at the Yerkes Observatory by Prof. Frost, January 14th 1910. The spectrum of the comet is in the middle between the two highest star-spectra. New dispersion in test. The line and of the spectrum is on the right, the line on the left.

bolides approached each other rapidly, but before the end of the year our planet crossed the line joining the comet with the sun, and by January 1st, as the figure shows, we were moving almost straight away from it. During the early part of the year the earth and comet passed on opposite sides of the sun, so that it was lost to our view early in March.

About the time that this is printed in will come into sight again, on the other side of the sun, rising before daybreak. But now its path has curved so that it is coming toward us—almost directly, if we take our motion into account as well as its own. It therefore seems to stand almost still among the stars, while growing steadily larger and brighter, so that any one might tell by its mere changes in appearance that it was approaching us rapidly.

Finally, about the middle of May the comet will apparently approach the sun again, and on the 18th it will pass in front of him, literally between us and the sun, transiting the latter's disk. If at this time its tail is more than fifteen million miles in length we will pass through it, as the figure shows.

The comet's orbital approach to us comes two days later, on May 30th, when it is but fourteen million miles away. For a few days following this it will be splendidly visible in the evening sky, and then it will fade gradually as it recedes from us.

It is clear from the diagram that this apparition of the comet is an exceptionally favorable one, for it passes the earth almost at the point where their orbits come nearest to one another. If it had returned only three weeks earlier, it would have come as near as possible—only seven million miles—but at this time it would have been directly south of the earth, astro-

\* Prof. Barnard has informed us that the tail was 14,000,000 miles long on February 21st, from which it may well be inferred that it is nearly twice that 14,000,000 miles long now.

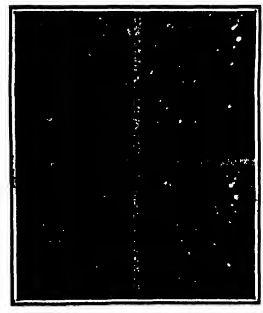


Fig. 2.—Halley's comet at its reappearance in 1909.

From photographs taken by Mr. Lee with the two-foot reflector of the Yerkes Observatory. These four photographs represent the same portion of the sky. The upper point to the comet which appears like a faint star just before dawn on May 1st.

Fig. 3.—Halley's comet on February 19, 1910.

From a photograph taken at the Yerkes Observatory by Prof. Barnard. As the instrument was kept pointed at the comet during the exposure the stars appear as short streaks. The actual length of the comet's tail is about five million miles.

usually of bright bands or lines three of which are conspicuous. The brightest of these as is shown by comparison with the hydrogen lines of the comparison spectrum is the so-called "orange" band at the extreme violet end of the visual spectrum. The others are probably as in the case of other comets, also due to gaseous compounds of carbon.

Between these bright bands can be seen a faint continuous spectrum, due to reflected sunlight.

When the comet first appeared the photographs made at the Yerkes Observatory showed this continuous spectrum alone. At that time it must have been shining entirely by reflected light, but by the date of our illustration it had already begun to be self-luminous. This is corroborated by the fact that its highest note increased more rapidly than could be explained by the mere increase in the amount of reflected light, due to its approach to the sun and to us.

This intrinsic light of the comet, as its spectrum shows, is given off by luminous gas, but we do not yet know what makes this gas shine. It can hardly be high temperature, for the comet had just come from the depths of interplanetary space, and did not yet receive nearly as much heat from the sun as the earth does. It must, however, be due to some kind of solar action, for it increases very rapidly as a comet approaches the sun. We can reproduce the same spectrum in the laboratory by passing an electrical discharge through a vacuum tube containing compounds of carbon and nitrogen at very low pressure.

It is of special interest that, even if the carbon compounds form but a small percentage of the gas in the tube, their spectrum becomes dominant as soon as the pressure is made very small say  $1/100,000$  of that of ordinary air. It may be, therefore, that at the lowest pressures carbon compounds have an exceptional capacity for giving off light, and it would be surprising to conclude that they are the principal gaseous com-





## THE DISINFECTING OF RAILWAY CARS.

The running of a railroad in Germany is evidently accompanied with unpleasantness, if one may judge from the accompanying photographs. The Potsdam shops, which are responsible for the proper maintenance of rolling stock, have been confronted with the difficult task of disinfecting the cars. It seems that the coaches which return from Russia are literally swarmed with vermin, and the proper main-tenance of the rolling stock, have been confronted with the difficult task of disinfecting the cars. It seems that the coaches which return from Russia are literally swarmed with vermin, and the proper main-tenance of the rolling stock, have been confronted with the difficult task of disinfecting the cars. It seems that the coaches which return from Russia are literally swarmed with vermin, and the proper main-tenance of the rolling stock, have been confronted with the difficult task of disinfecting the cars.

The problem seems to have been successfully solved by Julius Fintsch who applied to the rail way car a principle of disinfection which has been successfully employed on vessels. His disinfecting apparatus consists of an iron cylinder built up of cast iron annular sections of 16 feet in-ternal diameter. The inside length is about 72 feet. The cylinder is so snugly constructed that it can easily support without deformation a 30-ton car.

During disinfection the air within the cylinder is considerably rarified by a pump, and as a result, the outer air exerts a pressure of about 1,800 tons on the disinfecting cylinder. Hence the apparatus is heated during disinfection, and as a result, the outer air exerts a pressure of about 1,800 tons on the disinfecting cylinder. Hence the apparatus is heated during disinfection, and as a result, the outer air exerts a pressure of about 1,800 tons on the disinfecting cylinder.

Before it is run into the cylinder, all the windows and transoms of the car are opened. By means of a valve a two-ton closure is brought against the open end of the cylinder. A special device is employed to make the closure hermetic. Huge bolts hold the closure, gasket, and cylinder together. Steam is blown into the interior of the cylinder. Two hundred fifty steam pipes line the interior of the cylinder, all receiving their supply from the main pipe. The total length of all these pipes is about 1½ miles. In order to heat the air within the cylinder quickly and uniformly, two blowers are set in motion, so that all the air is brought in contact with the heating tubes. Even during the cold of winter the temperature within the cylinder can be raised to 140 deg. F. in from one to two hours. In order to heat an entire coach to this temperature, about five hours is required. After the car has reached the proper temperature, the air is pumped out of the cylinder until a vacuum of 70 to 74 centimeters of mercury under the normal pressure is obtained. At this atmospheric pressure water will boil at 100 deg. F. Hence all moisture is evaporated from the car without injuring the parts by the excess air heat. In no other way is it possible to kill vermin effectively. The upholstery, curtains, hangings, etc., are not in the least injured.

For very special purposes the cars may be disinfected with formaldehyde gas. At the very first attempt a car was thoroughly purged of vermin. To make assurance doubly sure, and to test the efficacy of this formaldehyde disinfecting method, a glass vessel full of the living insects had been purchased from a professional vermin-exterminator in Berlin. This vessel was placed in the car and covered with cotton and linen. The insects were all killed.

The apparatus has also been employed to dry out wet cars as well as cars pervaded with the unpleasant odor of cooking. After twenty-four hours they were quite ready for service again. In this case no formalin was used.

Lithograph by Bureau—40 parts sugar lime, 10 parts glycerine, 90 parts carbolic acid, 5 parts salol.

## CONCRETE IRRIGATION IN THE YAKIMA VALLEY.—THE TITON CANYON CANAL.

BY MAX ARNOLD.

The region adjacent to the Yakima River in southern Washington is the location of a group of irrigation projects which are notable for the engineering features. The topography of the country reveals a number of areas of arid land, separated by high ranges which prevent water being distributed from a single source of supply. The engineers of the Reclamation Service have made an investigation which extended from the lower portion of the Yakima River to its head waters in the foot hills of the Cascades, and

be impossible to build a tunnel or open canal upon it. Consequently, several miles of the conduit were supported upon pilings or arms of reinforced concrete anchored into the rock and extending outward from the canyon side. The Tilton project 4 feet 7 inches in diameter, with concrete shell 4 inches thick, while the tunnel sections are of circular concrete 4 feet 7 inches in diameter, with concrete shell 4 inches thick. This canal and tunnel lining are made up in 3-foot lengths manufactured on the site along the river bank, where concrete ingredients are readily obtainable, and lifted to the canal line by cable hoists operated by electric power. These hoists are used successively at points about two miles apart, and the concrete shapes are transported along the canal between hoists on railroad tracks laid in the bed of this excavated route.

This plan was adopted for the reason that beds of sand suitable for concrete were found in the bottom of the river. In fact, the Tilton valley was made the site of a novel concrete waterway. The question as to how to transport them to the work was answered by the use of electrical power. A series of transverse were built at convenient points up the side of the canyon operated by cable hoists. These hoists in turn were served by a series of electric motors securing current from a power station constructed for the purpose. The concrete as fast as mixed was molded to the proper dimensions in portable molds mounted on wheels, so that they could be drawn from the power station to the work. Each mold had taken place, the forms were set upon trucks having sides of steel framework. These trucks were mounted on the transverse, and the material brought to the top ready to be used.

On the Tilton project 10,000 feet of tunnel were necessary, divided into two sections of 3,000 feet each and one of 4,000 feet. In excavating these much of the formation was found to be of a nature not requiring special machinery to remove it. In making the tunnel excavation a circular bore 7½ feet in diameter was driven by machine drills. Tilton River has a fall of from 10 to 16 feet per mile, and advantage was taken of this to develop the power required for operating drills and other machinery and for lighting purposes. A power canal 2,500 feet long, of 180 second feet maximum capacity and 34 feet effective head, has been completed, which supplies water for operating a Franklin air compressor capable of compressing 1,250 cubic feet of free air per minute to a pressure of 105 pounds per inch, a Westinghouse generator of 120 kilowatts capacity, and of 120-horsepower turbine. About 500 horsepower is developed, ample to operate the six electric drills, six air drills, shop machinery, pumps, hoists, etc., and to light all the camp buildings. The turbine is regulated by a governor, and the power canal is provided with an ample automatic overdrive, just below the power house. An electric transmission line, carrying 2,500 volts, has been constructed to the upper portal of Trail Creek tunnel, a distance of seven miles. Electric drills are being operated at the two portals of Trail Creek tunnel, and at the upper portal of Tilton tunnel. At the lower portal of Tilton tunnel, and at both portals of North Fork tunnel, air drills have been installed.

Another difficulty in the way of building the Tilton project was the construction of a number of ravine carrying small streams. A part of these were diverted into concrete flumes, while other conduits for them were made from rubble masonry. These culverts are of the arched type and vary in width from two to eight inches, the size of the larger ones being necessary in order to allow for the flood currents through the ravines. The total expense of completing the



The huge cylinder in which German railway cars are disinfected by steam and formaldehyde at Potsdam after their return from a trip to Russia.

have planned five reservoirs and distributing systems, which will have a capacity to irrigate no less than 350,000 acres, making this group of projects one of the most important in the West. The various works are the Tilton, Sunnyside, Wapato, Kettian, and Benton. They have a water supply through the rivers from four lakes and a submerged "meadow" having a total area of 574 square miles.

While the lower section of the Yakima River is used in part for what is known as the Sunnyside project, most of the service is performed by the Tilton, the Naches, and the Cowlitz streams—small rivers which are feeders of the Yakima.

Of the projects, the Tilton is the most interesting from a scientific standpoint, owing to the difficulties along the route, the various applications of power, and the fact that without the use of concrete the project



Sealing the cylinder with a two-ton graduated closure before exhausting the air and turning on the steam.

## THE DISINFECTING OF RAILWAY CARS.

would have been impossible. This stream flows through a deep canyon with very steep sides, the height of the bluff ranging in places as high as 400 feet from the bed of the river to the level of the canal. The water of the Tilton is diverted by means of a concrete dam thrown across the stream. Although but three feet high and 300 feet long, the reservoir thus made is sufficient to fill a main canal 15 miles long and deliver water having a total of 51 miles. In conveying the water from the dam to the point of distribution, the only practical route which could be located was largely along the side of the canyon near the top, the rim being of such formation that it would

Tieton project is very small considering the work which had to be performed and the acreage which will be served by the water, a tract which will aggregate about 30,000 acres in all. In the construction work it was necessary to have a telephone line 23 miles in length, wagon roads along the route of the canal, and tunnels as well as temporary settlements for the workmen in the valley and on the rim of the

**Increased Cost of Army Rations.**  
The numerous published accounts of high prices of food and the hardships which have been inflicted upon the workmen, and also the fact that hog meat has become so high in price that its use has been almost prohibitive, has resulted in a complaint from our Uncle Sam, to the effect that his army would have to substitute corned beef or corned-beef hash for bacon

tioned before the price of bacon has so increased as to make the change desirable.

The garrison ration is steadily increasing in price because of the general rise in the cost of food products. When the estimates for army subsistence were made last May for the next fiscal year, it was assumed that a ration would cost \$9.97 cents. By January of this year the cost had increased to 22 cents, making



The canal consists alternately of open semicircular concrete conduits and circular tunnels.



Building the open section of the Tieton conduit. Note the wooden forms for the concrete.



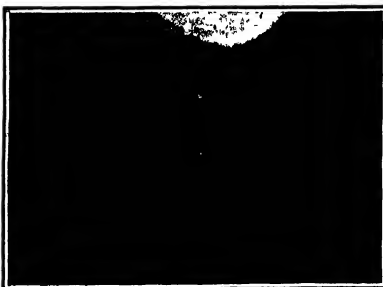
One of the portable molds used in forming the concrete linings of the conduit.



The molding yard, showing the concrete lining sections ready for delivery at the canal.



The 6-inch concrete lining was built in sections in the valley and lifted to place on the side of the canyon.



Side-hill excavation for the Tieton canyon canal.

# GOVERNMENT IRRIGATION IN THE YAKIMA WATERBED.—THE TIETON CANYON CANAL.

canyon. The land, however, is especially suited to the raising of forage, fruit, and hops and is located on three important railroad lines having connections with the principal cities of Washington.

Obtainment for Derna.—Iodineform, 80 parts; extract of cod-liver, 40 parts; carbolic acid, 1 part; rose unguent, 400 parts.

To those of us who served in the Spanish war, and had the canned or corned beef served us as a part of the regular ration, the news will not come as a surprise, but the man who reads this will undoubtedly think of the good beef he gets at home and wonder why complaints should be made.

One particular reason why the army will now use corned beef is from the point of economy, for as men

it necessary for the War Department to submit a deficiency estimate to Congress. If the present rate of increase keeps up, the cost will be nearly 25 cents by the end of the next fiscal year. When it is considered that the army annually consumes several millions of rations, it will be seen that an advance of even a fraction of a cent in a single ration means a big advance in the aggregate for a year.

### HOW GAMBLERS DECEIT BY MECHANICAL DEVICES

Games of chance have always had a fascination for all classes of individuals, at all ages, and the professional "sharp" has made a fortune out of the "game" in some persons in deception into a rolling machine) a means for earning an easy livelihood (at the expense of the numerous fools who visit the race course or other places where gambling is looked upon as a sport or a new legitimate pursuit).

The ingenious mechanical devices which have been employed for this purpose are really astonishing. Such money-raising machines are found all over the world, of course, out of date though our ingenious sharp inventors have taken the top of which was sheet steel under a very thin cloth covering. By means of an electro-magnet concealed within the table, its top could be converted into a powerful magnet, and the disc (which were prepared by having one side of metal while the rest were ivory) could be attracted to the table when the current was on or would fall in any hap-hazard position when the current was shut off. Thus, however, an astute and hardy anyone would venture to stake money upon the fall of the disc any more than he would upon three card monte.

Cards are the most fertile field for the gambler's revenue. Winning at cards depends largely upon the possession of certain high cards or the ones which win the tricks and to gain possession of these is the gambler's object. Forasmuch this various devices have been employed called "holdouts" mechanical contrivances concealed in the sleeve which by a very slight pressure or movement in one direction, will instantly shoot out the required card into the gambler's hand and recede again into the sleeve. One of the most ingenious and perfect of those was invented by a gambler named Keplinger, and the device has ever since been known as the "Keplinger holdout." The apparatus was worked by the knee, so that no motion of the arm or body was necessary. A slight extension of the knee was all that was required to shoot the card into the gambler's hand. The knee was thereupon released and the "holdout" receded like a flash into the gambler's sleeve.

Another variety of holdout is that concealed in the waistcoat, and here the hand is held close to the body with the cards outstretched while the thread is pulled, and in that manner a card is shot into the hand under cover of the remaining cards. This however, is a dangerous procedure which is rarely employed. A small but ingenious species of holdout is that known as the "bar." The small sharp point seen in the illustration is stuck into the wood of the under side of the table in such a manner that the flat bar runs along parallel to and just touching the wood of the table beneath. One or more cards are now inserted into the clip thus formed, and may be withdrawn by the fingers in the act of drawing cards on the table toward the body.

A daring yet simple variety of "holdout" is attached to the sleeve. It is buckled around the shirt sleeve under the coat and two small pointed knobs faring outward press against the coat sleeve. These knobs may be separated or brought nearer together by pressing upon a small rubber tube. If now a card is placed against the coat sleeve, on the outside, and the clips separated and then released, they will clamp the edges of the card through the cloth of the coat, and it will be retained there by the pressure of the spring in the "holdout." So long as the arm is held downward, the card is invisible, but the card may be obtained possession of by the fingers of the other hand when resting against the sleeve of the arm to which the "holdout" is attached.

A still simpler device is to have a small pocket cut in the coat sleeve. The "hooker" is merely a slit about three inches long, into which the required card is inserted. The fingers grasp the card and withdraw it with the others at the required moment. Another variety of "holdout" is known as

the "ring holdout." A ring is worn on one of the fingers, the inside of which is attached, as part of the ring, a small wire clip or spring, flesh colored. The card is inserted under this spring, and in that manner is retained within the palm of the hand by the pressure. Experts in sleight-of-hand would not require a clip of this character, being enabled to palm the card without any mechanical aid.

Besides such devices as those just mentioned, the



THE KEEPLINGER OUTFIT OF THE GAMBLER.

gambler depends for his success partly upon his dexterity in handling the cards during the actual progress of the game. Of course marked cards are frequently employed for this purpose, but the expert gambler will succeed in marking the cards with his thumb nail during the course of the play, so that, at the end of a few hands he knows practically every card in the pack from the slight indications upon its back. Sometimes, also, cards are bent more or less slightly to insure their recognition—either individual cards or a number of cards together. If half a pack is bent in this manner this is called "the bridge." Each card in this section then has a slight curve, as shown in the illustration.



SOME GAMBLERS' TRICKS WITH CARDS.

A gambler may even deal to himself or to any person forming the circle a particular card or cards known to him. This card is at the bottom of the pack, and the "sharp" deals of the cards from the top of the pack continuously until he reaches the person into whose hand he desires to place the card next to him, when, by a rapid movement, he withdraws it, not the top but the bottom card, with his fingers instead of his thumb. This trick, when

rapidly and well executed, is practically undetectable.

Card "sharps" also employ other devices for gaining knowledge of the cards dealt to every member in the circle. In order to gain this knowledge, a small mirror is employed. Sometimes this mirror is attached to a needle point, and fixed to the under side of the table nearest the dealer. If, now, in dealing, each card be passed over the mirror in turn, the gambler will be enabled to tell the position of each card dealt, and to follow the cards before a single play can be made. A mirror of this character is a dangerous device, and it is easily detected. For this reason, very ingenious schemes have been employed. A small mirror is inserted into the bowl of a pipe, laid carelessly on the table, the bowl being turned slightly upward and toward the dealer. Now, in dealing the cards, they are passed each in turn over the bowl of the pipe, and in this manner the magnifying glass it contains conveys to the "sharp" all the required knowledge as to the cards contained in each player's hand. Occasionally "sharps" employ a mirror ring for this purpose, a large signal ring being used which during the course of play, is swung around so that the signal faces the palm instead of the back of the hand. The signal then swings open as a pivot hinge and discloses a tiny magnifying mirror beneath. By the aid of this mirror, the majority of cards can be detected as dealt. At least some court cards can be distinguished from cards of lower value, which is the chief thing to be discovered.

There are a number of other ingenious devices employed by professional sharps, but the above will at least give the reader an idea of the extent to which this practice has been carried, of the remarkable ingenuity displayed by manufacturers of such devices, and of the dexterity and daring of the gamblers themselves in employing them.

### Macroscopic Examination of Metals.

The macroscopic examination of metals consists in examining the surface of the metal, which has been polished and chemically treated in such a manner as to bring out its constitution and its impurities. In macroscopic or microscopic examination the objects of study are the character and chemical properties of the alloy, while macroscopy concerns itself with the physical properties. The principle of the methods used is as old as the human race, and in which an acid mixture was employed which blackened in different degrees the strips of iron and steel which had been welded together in the formation of a good weld.

The operations of macroscopy are essentially two, first, the preparation of the polished surface, which must be absolutely free from grease, secondly, the chemical treatment, which is preferably effected with dilute sulphuric acid, in which the entire piece of metal is immersed for several hours, or with an aqueous solution of iodine and potassium iodide. The indications furnished by the examination of the surface thus treated are useful in determining the quality of steel and detecting the presence of slag and blowholes. When a bar of metal is cast there is frequently produced near the surface a blowhole which is filled with the more turbid impurities. Usually this pocket extends through one-third of the thickness of the bar. Macroscopic methods show whether the blowholes have been eliminated either by pressure or by means of the upper part of the bar, and they are also capable of detecting in forged pieces traces of these blowholes which have been left after the forging.

The statistics of the American Railway Association show that the net surplus of freight cars on the railways of the country on February 28th was 14,890, as against 24,775 on February 28th, 1894; and 24,416 on January 28th, 1905. The increased demand for box cars and flat cars has been estimated to call into service 20,000 more cars of this class.

### THE FIRE TREES OF THE NORTHWEST

The fir trees of the Pacific Northwest occasionally attain such proportions, especially in the territory near Puget Sound, that the stumps after the trees have been cut down are employed for novel purposes. In some portions of Washington one can see these huge stumps, which have been hollowed out and actually made into temporary homes for settlers. To make a stump house, it is necessary to remove the material from the interior, leaving enough to form walls of suitable thickness. Then a roof of boards or shingles is put over the top of the stump, holes are cut for windows and doors, and the dwelling is practically ready for occupation. A number of these stumps have been used by settlers on what are called logged-off lands, until they have been enabled to construct larger and more convenient dwellings. After the stump home has been vacated, it is turned into a stable for the horses, or sometimes into an inclosure for chickens or hogs.

Next to the big tree of California, or sequoia as it is termed by the scientists, the fir as found in Washington and Oregon has the largest diameter of any tree in America, and probably in the world. Some have been cut down which actually measured 15 feet in diameter at the point where the incision was made. As they decay very rapidly after the timber has been removed, usually the interior can be hollowed out with little difficulty. Sometimes they are used for dancing platforms, as is shown in the accompanying illustration, some being large enough to accommodate four couples. An other custom is to turn the big stumps into playgrounds for the children, who reach the top by means of a rope called against the side or by ladders, and a pretty sight which a traveler often sees in the Northwest is one of the big stumps turned into a flower bed and covered with the trailing vines.

### How to Repair and Clean Type-cases

By LEON A. FARRIS.  
As every user of a typesetter knows, the platen or roll is the part of the machine that wears out first. The constant hammering of the type against the surface of the platen soon makes indentations in it, which in a short time amount to such a degree of roughness that it is impossible to produce good, clean work.

A compound has recently been discovered that will restore the platen to its original smooth condition no matter how badly it is worn or how long it has been in use.

The formula and method of using the compound are as follows: The ideal material for use in repairing platens would be hard rubber, but in the process of vulcanizing, the rubber becomes insoluble to a great degree in the solvents generally used for making rubber solutions.

As a substitute for hard rubber, celluloid is recommended. The hard variety should be used, which is sold under the name of Initiation Ivory. This is soluble in acetone, amyl acetate, and various other solvents. One of the best solvents is a mixture of eight ounces of acetone and one ounce of amyl acetate.

In the absence of anything else in the way of cells, old, any ordinary article made of this substance, as a comb, may be used. There is a variety of celluloid used in the manufacture of combs which is quite satisfactory for this purpose. The color also is good where this variety can be obtained.

In using celluloid on platens it is advisable to use something with it that will give it hardness, such as finely powdered silica, infusorial earth, emery, or other similar substance. About one ounce of powdered emery to each eight ounces of compound is a fair proportion. Powdered acetone also works well for the purpose.

The celluloid solution should be made as thick as a very heavy syrup or as thick as putty, and should be applied with a brush. The heavier it is when made, the sooner it will dry. If a light colored celluloid is used, it is advisable to add some coloring matter, which may be lamp black, or any other fine coloring matter. The coloring matter should be used to give the desired

grayish color. Remove the plates from the machine. The work may be done with the plates in the machine, but great care must be taken to protect the working parts from the dust formed when smoothing up. It also takes less time to do the work when the plates are removed.

Wash the platen with gasoline to remove all grease and dirt, and rub it with a piece of fine emery paper, to give it a new, clean surface. With a brush, paint the mixture carefully over the platen, giving it a good thick coat.

Lay the plates aside for six hours or longer for the compound to harden. Then with a piece of fine emery cloth smooth it down, taking care not to cut quite to the original surface of the platen. This is the delicate part of the work, and upon the care used in doing it depends the quality of the job.

Acetone and amyl acetate can be obtained at any drug store. It usually requires from two to five hours for the celluloid to dissolve. Breaking it up into small pieces hastens solution. The solution should be prepared in a wide-mouthed bottle that can be securely

closed. In the formula, except that should a quicker drying mixture be desired the quantity of paraffin oil may be reduced and the kerosene increased. In all cases the lightest grade of paraffin oil should be used and not the heavier grades. If the paraffin oil is used a water white fluid is produced, if dark paraffin oil is employed the liquid has a light amber color. Oil of citronelli or oil of sandalwood may be substituted for the kerosene, which has no action whatever and is used simply to disguise the composition of the compound. To use the compound fill a tub of sufficient size with it. Place the machine in it and allow it to remain in the liquid until the surface of the platen is wet and down and grease will be washed off. Then remove it and dry it with a soft cloth brush the parts not accessible with the cloth. About two gallons of the mixture are required for the average case. The compound may be used as long as any of it is left, as the dirt settles to the bottom of the tub and the clean portion may be drawn off. It is necessary to keep it covered tightly when it is not in use to prevent evaporation of the benzol. A fair preparation may be made by using one-third the quantity of paraffin oil mentioned in the formula, an equal quantity of kerosene and from one and one-half to two times as much gasoline.

### The Transformation of Sea Water

Into Fresh Water

The belief was prevalent among the savants of the 17th and 18th centuries that a hermetically sealed earthen vessel dipped into the sea would fill itself with fresh water. At the present day it is difficult to say on what this belief was founded.

It surely could not have been founded by experiment. In a similar sense Mariotte, the founder of osmotic laws, made in the year 1725 an experiment which offered the filtration of sea water through a system of fifteen pipes filled with washed gourd-seeds or sand, and so placed as to let the water fall as if in a cascade. It is stated that the platen allowed a definite diminution of the pressure of salt.

Similar assertions are everywhere current among seamen. A scientific test of the endeavor to free salt from water was recently made by the French investigator Thoulet. His report which appears in the minutes of the Académie des Sciences of Paris shows that the presence of salt in air is reduced by filtration. Every centimeter of the length of a glass tube which was one meter long and was placed in a perpendicular position was filled with a sand and the rest of the tube was filled with sea water. Portions of the filtrate were examined at intervals of the experiment to ascertain its density and chemical composition. The result was that in the initial stage of the experiment no change in salinity content was found to be moderately reduced very soon thereafter both revealed their original value. The early decrease of value is explained by the mechanical action of the heavy water on the surface of a substance in solution as soon as the body comes in contact with the solution. In nature two sand falls to effect the separation of salt. Thoulet became known that relatively fresh water may be found on very low and barren coral reefs in the Pacific Ocean by digging to a trifling depth in the coral sand. It is not however the water freed from salt through the layers of sand but is simply rain water that is retained by a sandy stratum and by it proceed from admittance with the sea water.

Similar phenomena have been observed on the European coasts. They may be considered the key to the popular belief now contradicted, that sea water can be sweetened by filtration through sand.

According to the Electric Railway Journal, a novel type of electric locomotive has recently been built for the Great Northern Railway. The locomotive runs on a track which has to be kept clear for the passage of drays and for other purposes. To secure the necessary weight for adhesion it is designed to build the locomotive in the form of two lifts with a connecting girder. The current is taken overhead wires.



A FIR STUMP IN WASHINGTON, BIG ENOUGH FOR A DANCING PLATFORM



STUMP OF A FIR TREE IN WASHINGTON WHICH HELD A FAMILY OF FIVE

worked. It should be shaken often during the process as this will prevent the celluloid from forming in lumps. The bottle should be kept tightly corked and away from fire, for it is highly inflammable. Should the mixture become too thick it with a little more of the solvent, if it is not thick enough, add more celluloid.

A cheap and simple cleaning compound for type writers is composed of the following ingredients:

Paraffin oil	1 pint
Benzol	5 ounces
Cresol	1 dram
Kerosene	4 ounces
Mix thoroughly	

This compound was for years a secret confined to one or two of the large companies that rebuild type writers. The machine is immersed in the compound which quickly and thoroughly dissolves and removes all dirt, gum, grease, etc. It does not injure the machine, but on the contrary improves its appearance making it as bright as when new. In making up this quantity of this compound retain the propor-



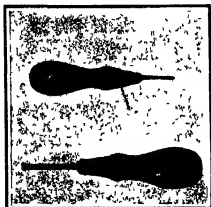


made in the ground for the vertical post to turn in. This winch is very useful for pulling wagons and autos out of the mud. All one needs is a rope and two posts or timbers.

#### THE WRITING OF TOOL HANDLES.

By J. J. JARVIS

How often it occurs that when a tool such as a hand saw or particularly a keen-edged chisel is thrown down in a hurry it will nail the bench and fall upon the floor, perhaps into a glue pot or upon the foot of the workman, or on a hard surface that will nick or dull the cutting edge. The following little scheme is employed with all the wood-working tools of the writer and found to answer admirably. Here a hole in that part of the handle that rests upon the bench, with a five-eighths rather dull cutting twist bit. Bore the hole only as far as the center of the handle, but no farther, or the object desired will be defeated. A dull cutting bit makes a rough-edged hole. Into this pour some melted lead (of course the lead should not be too hot) When the lead becomes set, trim it off evenly with a file and finish off with coarse sand paper. Now when the tool is thrown down hurriedly upon the work bench it will not roll over more than once and will come to rest leaded side down. This little device is not only inexpensive, it is thoroughly effective, it will not only save annoyance, it will prevent many an accident, which no one can realize more than the man who is handy in the use of wood working tools.



#### READ AWAY WITH HANDLES WEIGHED TO PREVENT ROLLING.

The illustration shows two hand saws, fitted as described, and used by the writer for several years.

#### AN ILLUMINATED GAS HEATER.

By H. W. WILLIAMS

The accompanying illustration shows how an illuminated gas heater can be made. The heater is mounted on a suitable pedestal, such as a wrought-iron stand or a base of some old discarded oil lamp. The heater proper consists of a burner A, a screen B, and an outside cover or shield C, which is removable. A suitable handle is provided at the top of the cover for this purpose.

Through the base passes an ordinary gas pipe, and at its lower end a stopcock is fitted with a suitable attachment for a rubber hose so that it can be connected to the gas supply in the usual manner. At the upper end of the gas pipe is attached an adjustable sleeve for regulating the proper proportion of air to be mixed with the gas. The sleeve terminates in the burner proper, which is made with double walls. The lower part is made conical, so as to better distribute the mixture of gas and air. The burner proper is made from ordinary culinary utensils, the inside part from a small pan, and the outside part is made from a colander with very small holes, the smaller the better. These two parts are riveted together at the top so as to make them tight. The lower or conical part may be made from ordinary black iron and may be fastened to the upper part as well as to the lower or gas pipe in any suitable manner, as by riveting or screwing.

The screen is made of wire netting fastened together, forming a cone with the same taper as the burner. The upper strainer is bent inward so as to serve as a support for the cone. On this screen, suitable asbestos fibers are attached. The raw Canadian rock asbestos is procured and the fibers pulled out in long threads, sometimes two or three inches long. These fibers are fastened and spread all over the surface on top of the perforations in the burner, and when the gas is lighted an incandescence mass will be formed which radiates heat but is not consumed. The outside cover is also made from some sort of pot or pan, provided with a top with a suitable handle, terminating with a downwardly extending rod, which passes through holes in the top of the burner proper and fits into a small socket at the lower or conical part. This is for the purpose of keeping it securely attached to the same. A

number of holes at the top should be made for the circulation of the air and spent gases.

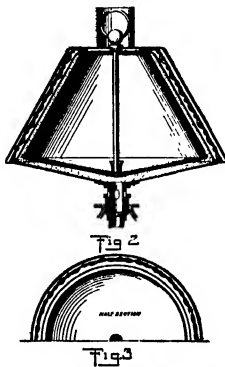
The cover may be cut out or perforated in such a way as to represent a landscape or any conventional design. The inside of the shield may be fitted with mica so as to render the heater more safe. The mica may be tinted in almost any color desirable. Aniline colors are dissolved in amyl acetate, then mixed with amyl acetate solution (commonly called banana oil). This mixture is applied with a soft brush and will dry very evenly. It will withstand a great deal of



A GAS HEATER IN THE FORM OF A LAMP

heat. When the burner is lighted the gas will burn and form small blue beads on the outside of the perforated burner, and as the flame strikes the asbestos there it will make them glow very brilliantly and change colors as the fibers are moved to and fro by the currents of air passing between the cover and the burner.

If artificially made the heater may be used on top of a table and will be a real ornament to the house but, of course, will show off to a better advan-



SECTIONAL VIEWS SHOWING DETAIL OF CONSTRUCTION.

tags in a dark room. The outside cover is not at all necessary, but is only used to get the desired effect.

#### FILES AND THEIR USES.

By JOHN C. CURRY

Nearly everyone who has had much filing to do, knows what a difficult thing it is to get hold of a reliable handle. Wood ones will split even if ferruled, or the brass ferrule will become battered and weakened. Steel ones are rarely satisfactory, and the set screws are always in the way. The following is a simple method of reinforcing the file handle: At the

end of the file handle turn two 5-inch grooves, placing them 5/8 inch apart. Connect by two diagonal grooves of the same size, wrap with a piece of paper, and pour Babbit metal or solder in the top. Trim up, and you have an everlasting file handle. A simple and inexpensive file cleaner is made by hammering either end of a medium or large sized common wire nail until it is flat. This tapering flat piece is then trimmed off the ends with waste file, and filed to an even thin edge. This cleaner is self adjusting to all files and is far more effective than the expensive wire brushes usually used.

Files as nearly everyone knows are made from the best of tool steel to hold a sharp and strong edge under tremendous strain. This steel primarily has to be capable of being easily worked and, after it is worked, holding the finest edge of the file indefinitely. It will be seen therefore that it must necessarily be the best of raw material for the articles enumerated below. It must be remembered that files have a very high temper, and therefore in all operations in which this degree of hardness is not essential, the temper should be drawn by heating and cooling down slowly. In order to render the steel less brittle. In fact, the temper and quality of a good file are indicated by the fact that the writer has seen made and has tried satisfactorily a razor ground from a 10-inch flat mill file on a regular emery wheel and then honed and stropped into shape.

Perhaps the first use I ever saw old files put to was a full set of nail sets made from 6-inch triangular files by snapping them off to an even length at five inches and grinding the points down to various shapes required. The top ends were rounded off nicely, and the teeth were ground just enough to give a beautiful knurled effect to the set. I asked the mechanic who made these tools why he hadn't used retail files and make them round, but he said he just wanted them different from the common run of tools. Some years later I did have the pleasure of seeing a beautiful set made from round files. Only with these there was left an unground strip between the two ends, to afford a good grip for the fingers.

Another splendid set which was evolved out of this

#### REINFORCED FILE HANDLE.

by a machinist who had occasion to do a little special pattern making from time to time, was a complete set of little V-shaped gouges and flat chisels and half rounds, all made with curved shanks to match other well-known patterns. These were made by forging small files of the requisite cross section into the curve required, and grinding the shank and edge to the tool desired. By regarding cross section I mean that he always took a flat file to make a flat chisel and a triangular one for a V-shaped one, etc. When these were ground nearly to their finished shape he hardened them by suddenly cooling in oil from a cherry red heat, and then tempered them to a medium draw and again cooled them, after which they were given their final grinding and sharpening. The tane on the file was just the thing to fasten the finished tool in a firmly finished handle, and his tool was complete.

If you want a good heavy center punch, snap off either a retail or triangular file of the right size to a convenient length, say five inches, grind a good long taper on it up to the last 1/8 of an inch, and make the taper shorter to give more motion to the point, and there you are.

Sometimes a file will help out a serious difficulty if it is only used. An excellent example of this is absolutely necessary to shear off some large spikes in some built up timbers that had already been planed in a building. It looked well high impossible until I thought to sharpen a file to an edge on the blunt end, similar to a cold chisel, and by driving this in between the pipes it was a simple matter to cut the spikes, though to tell the truth it spoiled the edge of the file several times before they were all out.

Perhaps the most common use to which they are put is to make them into burnishers for sharpening cutlery, razors and hand tools. For these they are simply mounted in a handle and the blunt end is perfectly smooth. Triangular files are the ones commonly used for this purpose.

A round file makes an excellent awl for any purpose and with scarcely any trouble it transforms itself ready for its new duties as it needs only to be sharpened.

An amateur desiring to take up brass craft work, and not wanting to pay the exorbitant price generally exacted for an outfit, decided to make one from files. In less than two hours he had made every tool illustrated in a large assortment, and they were a creditable-looking outfit, comparative enough for any ordinary purpose, and included all the necessary planing, drawing, tracing, and stippling tools.



















# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

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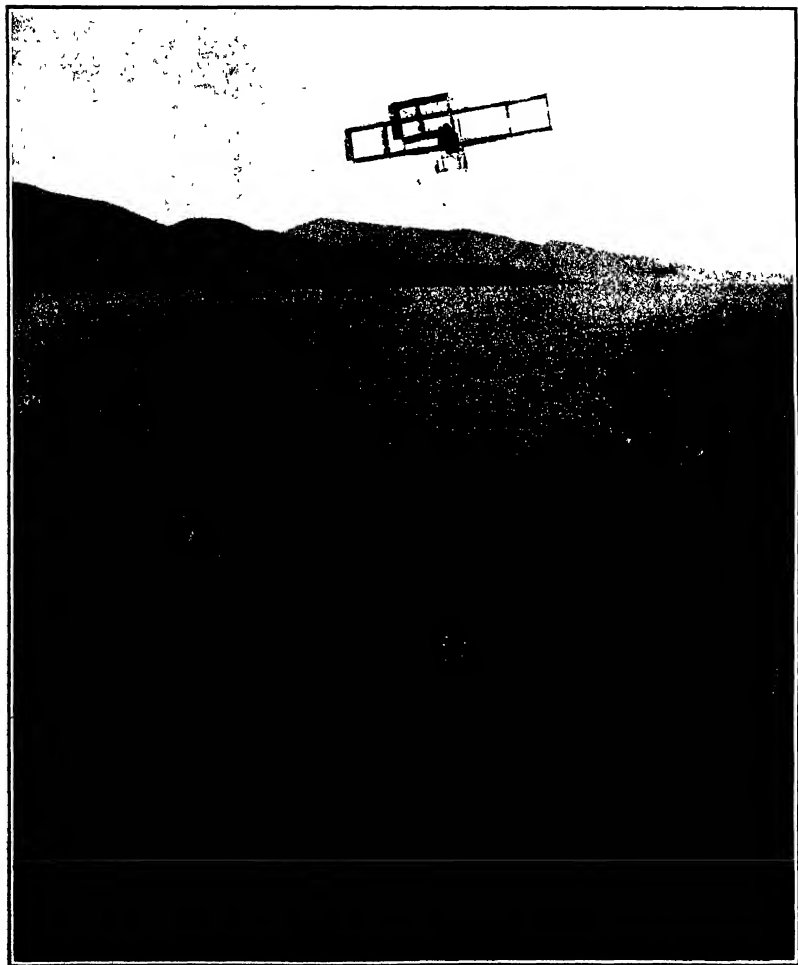
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BOUVERIE FLYING ACROSS THE BAY OF MONACO IN HIS VOULIN BIPLANE.—[See page 848.]

## SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

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## TAX WAY TO PREVENT RAILWAY ACCIDENTS.

I t is well understood among railroad officials that the most fruitful cause of railroad accidents in this country is to be found in laxness of discipline among the employees. Presumptive proof of this is found in the fact that, although our leading railroads have been equipped with a block signal system and other safety appliances, which are generally equal and in some cases superior to those on European railroads, the number of accidents in proportion to the number of people carried continues to be larger in this country. We therefore note with much satisfaction that the Chicago and Northwestern Railway has taken a step in the right direction by appointing an official whose chief duties will be to make a study of railway accidents, and by a system of education and strict enforcement of discipline, endeavor to eliminate the most fruitful cause of injuries to passengers and damages to freight. Opportunity was recently taken by the Chicago and Northwestern railway company's chief department, to relieve the claim agent of much of the detail of his work and allow him to make a careful study of the causes of all accidents in the handling of passenger traffic. This will be his duty to bring about a more thorough cooperation and a higher state of discipline among the various employees, upon whose fulfillment of their duties the safe operation of the line ultimately depends. The scheme is a most excellent one, and we believe that its results will be so satisfactory as to lead to similar arrangements on at least the more important railroads of the country.

## AN SPOON-MAKING EXPERIMENT.

A T the last meeting of the Institution of Naval Architects, a paper was read by the Hon. G. A. Parsons which created a profound impression among the British naval architects and shipbuilders. It was described by Prof. J. A. Ewing of Cambridge University as "epoch making," and the announcements which it contained must be considered as second only in importance to those which were made by Mr. Parsons after the successful trial of his first turbine-driven steamer.

Mr. Parsons' paper which was entitled "The Application of the Marine Steam Turbine and Mechanism to Merchant Ships," described the successful application of a combined steam turbine and reduction gear to a slow speed merchant steamer, the "Vesuvius." The "Vesuvius" is a small cargo steamer of less than a thousand tons displacement, which in her original condition was driven by reciprocating engines which were sufficiently up-to-date to be considered as representative of the average engine-room equipment of the modern tramp steamer. To make certain that the conversion would be a true one, a full-scale model of the turbine engine was constructed, and the results were so favorable both to the reciprocating and the turbine engine, the reciprocating engine was thoroughly overhauled and put in first-class condition. The ship was then taken to sea by the "Vesuvius" on a routine trial in which complete data relating to draft, weather, water and coal consumption etc., were collected. The vessel was then returned to the yard for the reciprocating engine was replaced by a full-scale steam turbine with a 1 to 40 reduction gear was installed, the propeller used with the reciprocating engine being left untouched. The reduction gear consisted of pinions on the turbine shaft and a large spur wheel on the propeller shaft. The gears were of cast iron and the whole was mounted in plain bearings without the use of any special adjustment. The "Vesuvius" was then taken to sea, and put through a similar course of

trials to those which were run with the reciprocating engine. Except for the substitution of turbines for reciprocating engines, the ship with respect to draft, bottom, and propulsion was in exactly the same condition as in the first trial.

When the results came to be worked up, it was found that with seventy revolutions of the propeller, there was a net gain of 16 per cent over the steam for all purposes was considered, and of from 18 to 19 per cent for the propelling engines alone. Translated into terms of boiler power, this means that one boiler out of every six in the slow cargo boat can be dispensed with.

Speaking of the important question of the strength of the mechanical gearing Mr. Parsons stated that as the "Vesuvius" had been taken out in a heavy sea without experiencing any trouble with the reduction gear, it was probable that the gear would stand anything that the shaft would stand in the discussion of the paper various shipbuilders referred to the long-standing prejudice against mechanical gearing, and it was the general opinion that its rapid wear was due to the imperfections of manufacture which characterised much machine work in the early days of the steamship, which gearing was used for speeding up the propeller just as today it is being used for speeding down the early mechanical gearing, moreover, because of its imperfection, was very noisy, but it was agreed that if almost perfect gear cutting which can be done today will practically eliminate the noise, particularly if the gear is suitably enclosed and sound-deadened.

Mr. Westinghouse recently pointed, in the remarkable case with a 4,000-horsepower engine, which were carried out at the Pittsburgh shops, that by the use of helical gearing, which is the type that was used on the "Vesuvius," it is possible to transmit large horsepowers with an insignificant amount of wear and with an efficiency of over 95 per cent, in about the same efficiency as was secured by Mr. Parsons.

To say the most important of these "Vesuvius" trials will be appreciated, when we bear in mind that about two-thirds of the steam merchant marine of the world is of the slow cargo-carrying type, for which the steam turbine, because of its high economy of fuel, has been found to be unsuitable. Moreover, the "Vesuvius" was the first vessel to be fitted with the new system, and it is reasonable to conclude that with further trials, the economies of the turbine, in the way of economy of at least 20 per cent will be guaranteed on the engine and 17 per cent on auxiliaries, or, as Prof. Ewing put it, there will be a saving of one cubic foot of coal on the whole equivalent to one ton.

Furthermore, not only will there be economy at the coal pit but the reduction in weights will make possible a considerable increase in the cargo-carrying capacity. In this connection it should be noted that the United States Navy Department has authorized the installation of Westinghouse turbines with Melfort and McAlpine gears in the new fleet cutter No. 18, which is being built at Sparrows Point, Maryland. The space and weight saved by the use of this apparatus as compared with the reciprocating engine originally contemplated for this vessel, will enable it to carry about 200 tons more coal, and it is believed that the economy in coal consumption will be such that the saving thereby effected will add another 200 tons to the net carrying capacity of the cutter.

## WATERWAY DEVELOPMENT IN EUROPE AND THE UNITED STATES.

W Hile it is a contemporary soundings a word of warning is being sounded in the United States, the whole development of the waterways of the United States, by drawing attention to a document issued by the British Royal Commission on canals and waterways, which contains a report of the army engineers on this side of the Atlantic. The report deals with the waterways of Belgium, France, Germany, and Holland, and our contemporary advice that it is studied in connection with the report of the army engineers on the proposed 14-foot waterway from the Lake to the Gulf. It is claimed that the Royal Commission report contains a valuable and complete survey of the waterways of the world, and that the Ministry of the Mississippi and its tributaries, with 14,000 miles of navigable waters, as developed and maintained by the government, furnish as good an example of waterway development as any in the world. In France the waterways that are used considerably include a total of about 7,500 miles of rivers and canals, and of the 1,200 miles of rivers and 1,671 miles of canals, there has been a total of 1,200 miles of canals and 1,671 miles of rivers, and a maximum depth of 13 feet, the bulk of the traffic being carried on water varying from 5 feet in depth down to 15 feet.

In Germany there are 8,100 miles of waterways, the depth of which in the rivers varies from 3 to 6 feet, while on the lower sections of the larger rivers the depth becomes from 8 to 10 feet. The depths of the canals are from 4 to 6 feet, and 1 to 1.5 feet in the canals from 4 to 10 feet, from 4 to 6 feet being the

most common. Comparing these figures with those of the Mississippi, we find that, even in the low-water season, boats of 15 to 20 foot draft may be sent from the Gulf of Mexico 270 miles to New Orleans, Baton Rouge, and Bayou Sara. Boats of 8-foot draft may travel 840 miles farther to Cairo, those of 5-foot draft may pass from Cairo 183 miles to St. Louis; while those drawing 10 feet may be sent from the mouth of the Illinois River, and Illinois State canals, a further distance of 345 miles to Chicago. The Ohio has a depth of 9 feet from Cairo to Pittsburgh, a distance of 1,000 miles.

Now, since the Mississippi and its tributaries actually constitute a better waterway system than any in Europe, the question is asked, Why is the river and canal trade in Europe growing faster than the railroad traffic, while in the United States railroad traffic is rapidly increasing, and river and canal traffic falling off? One important reason is that both the municipal and private interests in Europe have provided the waterways with good terminals, and boats and barges have been developed which are specially adapted to river and canal traffic. Here, practically nothing of the kind has been done.

As an offset to these conditions, the advocates of larger waterway development are in favor of the construction of much deeper waterways than any in Europe, deep enough to allow lake and ocean-going vessels to pass through. When the government investigated this subject for the State of New York, the conclusion was reached that the cost of transporting grain by the typical lake freighter on a deep-water canal would be 38 per cent greater than on the railroad and barges on a barge canal, and it was this conclusion that led the State of New York to abandon the idea of a 20-foot canal.

Our contemporary is of the opinion that it would be the very height of folly for the government of the United States, under present transportation and commercial conditions to spend hundreds of millions on the development of deep waterways. The only way by which considerable commerce could be diverted to the present or proposed waterways would be to compel the competing railroads to raise their existing rates, and to compel the government to raise its rates. In France the government compels the railways to keep their rates at least 20 per cent higher than the rates on the competing waterways, this practice, according to the report of the Royal Commission, has been one of the reasons that waterways, because of the longer duration of transport, are not able to compete at equal rates with the railroads.

## ONIONO PRESSURE AND CURRENTS.

I T is known that a current can be generated by liquid passing through a porous diaphragm or filter, but such currents were too small to be of practical value. The matter has been taken up by a German scientist, B. Sauerlin. He claims to have obtained remarkable results in current production. A liquid (turpentine) in a tube of large diameter and at a high pressure (inside the tube is placed a filter through which the liquid passes, consisting of a certain thickness of a porous substance contained between two sheets of wire gauze. The current is taken from each of the sheets by a wire. To produce a current we must have the proper liquid and the filter must be properly made. Adding suitable salts to the liquid will find a high value for the current. At the same time the diaphragm must be made of matter in an impenetrable powder to be effective, so as to reduce the size of the pores. As an example, he uses a pressure of 5 atmospheres, a diaphragm of 1/2 inch thick, finely powdered carbon 1/2 inch thick with a surface of 32 square inches, the internal resistance being 1,000 ohms when distilled water is used. But a small current is not produced, but when we add ammonium to the water the current is increased ten times and the electromotive force twice, therefore we have 20 times the energy by using ammonia. The best results are given by zinc sulfate powder and the use of a much higher pressure. At 80 atmospheres we have as high as 25 volts and 0.5 ampere, or 2.5 watts, which is a very good result. The energy seems to vary as the square of the pressure, and when we increase it we could obtain large currents. When the pores are finer the loss is lessened, but the energy is about the same. The liquid is best sent in a closed circuit of piping.

## WALLLEY'S COURT.

T HE first observations of the comet in the morning sky show that it is disappointingly faint. Its intrinsic light has evidently not increased as rapidly as in the case of some other comets. Unfortunately there is a chance in this respect, it will be far from conspicuous to the naked eye until the latter part of May, and those who wish to see it in the morning sky will do well to wait for the comet, and to look for a much brighter comet in the evening sky. The comet's first appearance of last week showed,



# THE EROSION OF BRONZE PROPELLERS

## ONE EFFECT OF THE HIGH SPEED TURBINE

The introduction of high-speed turbine engines has produced a serious amount of erosion in propellers made of high-tension bronze—a material which until recently showed no serious erosion effects. The trouble with the linear manufacturer has been chiefly occupied in preventing war corrosion both chemical and galvanic, but erosion or the mechanical breaking up of the material by the action of sea water, was formerly never considered. One of the most astonishing cases of severe erosion occurred in the case of the Cunard liner "Mauretania", for after she had been in service about three months, on dropping the ship it was found that all the bronze propellers were badly eaten away, those at the stern being least affected. The area that suffered most was situated about two feet from the root and toward the outer edge of the blade. The corroded area amounted to three or four square feet, and the metal had been eaten away in depths which varied from a quarter of an inch to two and a half inches.

A very thorough examination of the problem was made by Dr. Oswald Silberrad, who, after an exhaustive series of laboratory and other experiments, determined that the deterioration was due to erosion, and found that it could be prevented by the use of a special bronze alloy whose chemical and physical properties were designed specially to meet the condition.

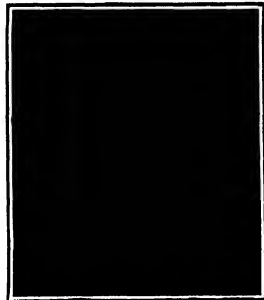
Dr. Silberrad came to the conclusion that since the material withstood the old conditions of propeller service, the primary cause of the deterioration was due to the modified conditions of higher propeller speed, etc. In discussing the new conditions he calls attention, first, to the terrible surface friction of the water. The "Mauretania" was originally fitted with four three-bladed, built-up propellers, of the usual high-tension bronze that has been employed for many years for the propellers of Atlantic liners. They were a little less than 17 feet in diameter, and upon the westward voyage the average revolutions of the engine were 174, the horsepower developed being about 68,000. The perimeter of each propeller traveled through the water in a helical path at a speed of about 104 miles per hour, and transmitted to the water during the whole of the voyage no less than 17,000 horsepower. "The consideration of these figures," says Dr. Silberrad, "enables us to realize that, under such conditions, the water becomes a very rough fish for any alloy to withstand, and when the standard bronze, which has proved so serviceable in the past was subjected to these conditions, we can scarcely be surprised that it failed."

A curious feature in the problem was the wide and marked divergence in the degree and position of the deterioration in the various propellers examined. Thus in the starboard ship "Lusitania," where the conditions were at first apparently identical, the backs of the propellers were quite as much affected as the faces. Moreover, the propellers of certain destroyers showed a maximum damage at the base (see illustration) where the helical velocity is least. In looking for secondary causes, "dirt in the castings" was

excluded because the eroded castings proved to be exceptionally free from dirt, "galvanic action" also was shut out by the fact that analysis showed that no large concentration of copper had occurred on the eroded surface. At the same time the areas of maximum deterioration do not coincide with the view that erosion is along the primary cause, since these areas in no case occur at the extreme tips of the blades, where the helical velocity is greatest.

After a prolonged research, involving the examination of a large number of cases of propeller deterioration, it was proved that the trouble was primarily erosion, although the degree to which secondary causes entered into the problem varied more widely than was anticipated.

In a series of tests to determine the relative rates



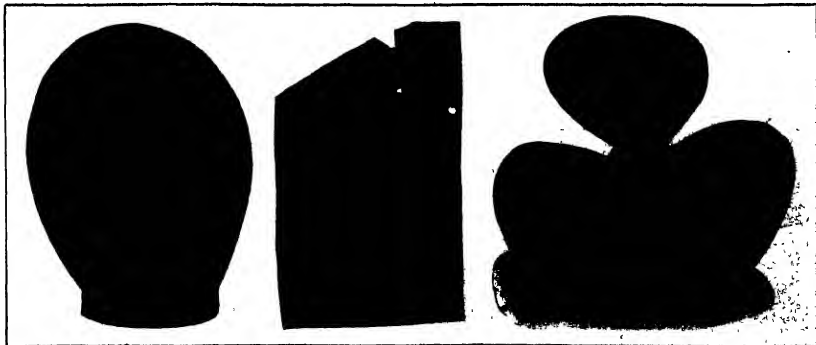
One of the new solid propellers of the "Mauretania" of special turbine alloy, which fail to show any erosion.

tance to erosion of a large number of different alloys it was found that the number of hours necessary to produce a certain deterioration varied from 24,700 hours, the time of the regular standard bronze, to 117,800 hours for Parsons new turbine alloy, which was used to coat the new four-bladed, solid propellers with which the "Mauretania" and "Lusitania" have been equipped. An examination of these propellers, each of which weighs about twenty tons, was made after they had been running for nearly six months, by the surveyor for Germanischer Lloyd, who reported that he found them in perfect condition. It is significant, also, that since their adoption for the forward, or starboard, each of these ships added about three-quarters of a knot to its previous best speed.

As the same four-bladed propellers are to be fitted to the other two starboard shafts it is likely that the transatlantic speed may be raised this summer above the 26.05 average at which it now stands.

It was in 1860 that Mr. Hind read a paper before the Royal Astronomical Society in which he traced the appearance of Halley's Comet through the ages with the help of the Chinese annals, which had only very recently become known in Europe. Although he was sometimes wrong, he was nearly always right. He believed that in the Chinese annals he had found credible references to Halley's Comet back to the year B. C. 11. He reported it as certain that Halley's Comet reached its perihelion in 1378, and therefore, allowing the normal periodicity, he looked for some mention of it about the year 1801. Two Chinese annals definitely describe a great comet in that year. There was one European account of it by Prior Giles which was not reconcilable with the Chinese record. If the Chinese were describing Halley's Comet it seemed that Prior Giles certainly was not. Hind was led to an examination of Giles's credibility. He discovered that his account of another comet in 1864 was so contradictory that he had no hesitation whatever in preferring the Chinese statement for 1801, and concluded that the comet of 1801 was Halley's. He believed that the preceding return of the comet was in 1328, when, in July, shortly before the death of Philip Augustus, a comet was seen for eight days in the evening twilight. The Chinese annals do not mention this comet, but they mention comets in the years 1323 and 1324, neither of which Hind thought closely resembled Halley's Comet. Corvelli and Crommelin have shown that Hind was wrong about the particularly bright comet of 1323, which was unquestionably Halley's Comet. Not all of Hind's "ascriptions," as art critics say, are reconcilable with Corvelli and Crommelin's latest calculations, but enough is established on all hands to prove that Halley's Comet has been appearing ever since the history of the skies has been written.

A new type of locomotive designed to secure smokeless combustion of bituminous coal has recently been tried on two or three of the railways entering Chicago. The apparatus is designed to operate on the coking principle. The coal is so fed as to admit of the gases being first consumed, the resulting coke being fed to the grate and consumed without the black smoke of more rapid and incomplete combustion. Within the fire-box is a magazine which may be changed in quantity, a ton at a time if desired, from which the coal is automatically fed to the fire. A rotary fan underneath the fire-box affords a supply of fresh air to assist the proper combustion of the gases before they escape through the tubes, and supplies the necessary draught. The arrangement has been used with some success in connection with stationary plants, but there appears to be some skepticism whether the fire thus produced will be of sufficient intensity for locomotive purposes.



Erosion of bronze blade of "Mauretania" after three months' service.

Portion of torpedo-boat destroyer showing severe surface erosion.

Bronze propeller of a destroyer, showing pronounced erosion about the root portion.

THE END OF THE BRONZE PROPELLER

BY DR. ALFRED GRADENWITZ

**SEE MEMORANDUM AS FOOD DETROITIVE.**

seed oil, and such substance as burnt sugar. Cayenne pepper, with other, usually, but has been given a well-defined legal meaning. In general it may be said that adulteration consists in injuriously subtracting from a substance any part of its original or inherent qualities or adding to it any ingredient which renders the article of a different nature than that of its expressed and natural form.

Almost coexistent with the growth of this wonderful country, and seemingly as a part of the fierce but now competition which has instinctively developed, this evil of food and drug adulteration has arisen. The conditions of substitution and adulteration of foods and drugs were little short of deplorable less than a decade ago. For seventeen long years the bill which has now become the Pure Food Law lay at the door of Congress and during all that time it was bitterly opposed by the manufacturers who had so long enjoyed unimpaired the privilege of supplying the dinner table of the nation with impure foods miserably labeled.

While this act has done much good, there is still a very considerable amount of adulteration practiced. Pepper adulteration is still remarkably common and "Pure White" or "Pure Honey" brand of commercial talcums of the drug store, from glaucous. Other enterprising manufacturers will cause two grains of Cayenne pepper to grow where only one grew before, by making one of the grains grow under a small red glass, and the other beans may be found in black paper, and colery seed may be adulterated with forty per cent of powdered rock.

In order to run down our class of food faking, the pure-food experts at Washington have introduced the microscope into their work. It can be readily understood how gross adulteration may be detected by a slim tube microscope, as, for instance, when foreign seeds, gravel, or powdered rock have been mixed with whole small seeds. The adulterant may be of such a character as to escape the notice of the ordinary buyer, though with even a small lens, a single grain of foreign substance may be seen to be very different from the true article.

The usefulness of the simple magnifier in examining food and drug materials has been recently brought to the examination of products which are made up of small particles such as flour, ground spices and powdered drugs. In such cases recourse must be had to the compound microscope, which gives a magnifying power ranging from fifty to four hundred diameters.

This world's supply of starch comes for the most part from a limited number of plants, twelve or fifteen in all, nearly all of which are of commercial importance. To the naked eye these starches all appear as a fine white powder, but under a microscope grains or granules are seen which vary more or less in shape, size, rings, furrows and action toward polarized light. Some of the grains are almost spherical, others are angular or oval, and still others are very irregular in outline. In diameter they vary from one-thirtieth to one-thousandth of a millimeter. In no variety are the starch grains of one size, but usually there are fairly well-defined limits. The way in which they sometimes vary will be seen by reference to the photographs reproduced in this article. Most of the grains show, more or less clearly, fine lines of rings upon the surface.

In some varieties these are arranged concentrically, while in others they are arranged in a spiral. A hilum (nucleus) whose form and position varies widely in certain species is commonly seen in starches." says B. J. Howard, who has charge of this microscopic work in the Bureau of Chemistry, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

In some it is at the center as in corn and wheat starch, in others near one end, as in potato and arrowroot. When viewed in polarized light starches show more or less rounded in cross with the horn of a cross while in many it is eccentric and well defined. Some starches which illustrate the foregoing type, has a spindle-shaped cross. In the cell a number of starch granules are joined together forming a mass. When these masses of starch are examined under polarized light individual grains in the mass have their own individual effect, and in some cases other than that results little more than a hazy glow of light.

By becoming familiar with these characteristics it is possible to identify with considerable accuracy nearly all of the commercial starches. Potato starch adulterated with corn starch wheat with corn flour, and buckwheat with wheat are examples of those most easily detected. One of our photographs shows a picture of potato starch adulterated with a considerable amount of corn starch. The grains of the latter are easily distinguished by the angular form.

Another interesting application of the microscopic method of food analysis is found in the examination of spices. Many of these naturally vary so widely as to ash, fiber, etc., and in tests that it is impossible to

identify certain kinds of adulteration by chemical and physical means alone. A study of the structure of pure samples will usually fit the analyst to detect adulteration in the ground spices as well as to identify the adulterant. In order to work most effectively, however, it is imperative that the analyst should have a good foundation in biological botany, since in this class of products the plant cell in its various modifications becomes the means of identification. In an examination of this sort nearly all kinds of plant tissue are to be considered, because some species are derived from roots, as ginger, some from barks, as casia and cinnamon, some from seeds, as cloves, some from seeds, as mustard, some from fruits, as red pepper, black pepper, etc., and some, such as sage and thyme, from leaves.

"Unfortunately," says Mr. Howard, "most of the substitutions used for adulteration have a structure very different from the genuine spices. For example, although pepper may be adulterated with ground peas, or beans, it may not always be detected by chemical means, especially when olive pits or pepper shells have been added to counteract excessive starch present in beans. A microscopic examination will reveal such substitution at once by revealing the structure of the large starch grains characteristic of certain legumes. In pepper the starch is present in angular masses made up of small grains."

It sometimes occurs that a manufacturer has added so large an amount of corn meal or foreign ground seeds and fruit tissue to a pepper as to make the adulteration apparent to the taste by the lack of pungency, which is often overruled by adding a small amount of Cayenne pepper. A sophistication of this kind can be readily detected by the microscopical method of analysis, because the tissues added are so distinctly different from the normal pepper tissue. One of our photographs shows the microscopic appearance of a sample of pepper which was grossly adulterated with ground olive stones. The starch material has been stained black in the picture, while the purely cellular, more or less elongated in form, are the stone cells of the olive pits.

The spiculate fruits are readily identified by means of certain cells found on the lower portion of the pericarp (pod) and others on the seed coats. These cells have characteristic sinuous outlines which make them easy to detect even when present in very small numbers.

In coffee and chocolate preparations roasted cherries, cereals, and peas in the case of the former and starch granules and cocoa shells in the case of the latter, are sometimes used for adulteration. Coffee, being the seed of a plant has a structure which is very different from cherries, which is a root. The cell walls of coffee have a characteristic beaded appearance which it presents in but few other plants. Even after roasting and grinding these beads can be easily distinguished while cherries contain sap vessels by which it can be detected.

Chocolate and cocoa are made from the seeds of the cocoa plant, to which foreign starches are sometimes added. Cocoa beans contain naturally a considerable amount of starch. The grains are small in size and are easily distinguished from the starch adulterants, such as corn and wheat flours or potato corn, and arrowroot starches. An artificial chocolate coating has been examined which was composed of cocoa shells, corn starch, beef tallow and some mineral matter, probably used as a coloring substance.

In the production of artificial jelly, jama, and some kinds of confectionery, various substances are used among which might be mentioned gelatin, starch, agar-agar, gum tragacanth, and gum arabic. Some of these are difficult of identification, while others can be readily detected. Agar-agar is a vegetable product, being derived from seaweeds, and usually contains the siliceous shells of diatoms. These shells are characteristic and quite easily detected in the sediment from the bottom of a glass of agar-agar. When the material has been digested with dilute nitric acid. One of our photographs shows such a diatomaceous shell obtained from a sample of artificial "lamon slown" in which was found that the jellying material was agar-agar.

Starch can easily be detected by microchemical and microscopical tests. Gum tragacanth and some other gums of this class contain a certain amount of small cells called "stone cells" which have altered and a delicate laminated structure is developed by which these gums are disclosed even in such products as ice cream and marshmallows.

A sample of thickener composed of corn starch and powdered gum tragacanth is shown herein, and illustrates this feature quite satisfactorily. In this case the corn starch is shown plainly as the angular particles, while the thickened mass near the center of the field are swollen fragments of the gum. The microscope is also of service in the examination of certain kinds of tissue. Thus, if pure lard is dissolved in ether and the latter is allowed to evaporate slowly under proper conditions, crystals of the lard will be formed. These, if normal, will appear under the microscope as narrow plates with chisel-shaped ends. But fat

treated in a similar manner will normally crystallize out in sheaf-like tips of crystals, the ends of which are nearly or quite needle-like.

Another application of microscopic analysis is in the identification of the wax from which a candle is made. This is of practical value in the analysis of honeys purporting to be from certain flowers. Although bees will almost invariably gather honey from several kinds of flowers, some of the wax from which they make honey, such as an extent as to impart a distinctive color and taste, enough to allow the honey to be called by that name. By microscopic examination it is readily ascertained whether the wax is from clover, alfalfa, or an orange-blossom honey is really largely derived from the source claimed. A photograph showing several kinds of pollen found in an ordinary sample of honey is reproduced.

## Correspondence.

### THE INVENTOR OF THE PLANO-PLAYER.

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

I must file a disclaimer to an impression created by the illustrated article which appeared in your issue of the 9th inst., under the heading "Kinging Chimes by Performed Music." In the article, John McCannammy as one of the inventors of the piano-player, I think an erroneous impression is thus conveyed regarding McCannammy's true relation to the development of the piano-player.

As a matter of fact, he is known and conceded to be the father of the player by everyone in the piano trade familiar with the player history, and his claims to its inventiveness stand unchallenged up to the present. We do not refer to McCormick as one of the inventors of the player or to Howe as one of the inventors of the sewing machines nor to Cristofori as one of the inventors of the piano. Although the latter two mentioned contributed greatly to the development and improvement of the aforesaid inventions.

The history of every great invention has demonstrated that some one man has stood out pre-eminently from all his fellows in the course of its development, and the player has been no exception, and the one man who above all others stands forth pre-eminently in the player field is John McCannammy, his around and about him, like so many satellites, have stood other men who have contributed of their genius to develop and improve the invention. In the case of the player it was McCormick who, as we have mentioned in our previous, on the other hand Howe was the preiding genius who led the sewing-machine pioneers, while Cristofori was the pre-eminence genius who first conceived and developed the piano.

It is true that others have improved upon the hand work of McCormick and Howe as well as upon that of Cristofori, but nobody has been able to eliminate the elements which they introduced into their respective inventions, and so long as those essential elements remain in their respective devices, just so long those inventions shall be attributed to the men we have mentioned. But the piano invented by Cristofori was a mute and silent piano, and such it remained from the time it was invented, in 1709, until 1878, when John McCannammy breathed into its wooden walls the breath of life, and henceforth it became a living, breathing, yes, almost a human thing, until today it stands forth the unsurpassed and unchallenged king of musical instruments. The following definition of the player has been accepted by the piano trade as authoritative:

"Player," a musical instrument consisting of a casing two actions, which, when actuated by the touch of the keys, or of a mechanical device, is operated manually, the other designed to be operated mechanically by means of a perforated sheet of music, and which, by means of a mechanism, feeds the sheet and winds the rolls, a bellows and means for putting in motion the various parts of the mechanism of the automatic action, foot pedals or power for driving the motor, and means for controlling the tempo and varying the expression."

Now the first man to embody the foregoing elements in a musical instrument was John McCannammy, and it follows that, if McCormick is the inventor of the player, there is the sewing machine and the piano of the piano, by reason of the fact that they were the first to embody in their respective devices the essential elements which distinguished these inventions from day, and the elimination of which would make them worthless, then by the same token John McCannammy must be regarded as the father of the piano-player mechanism, for no man ever made a player who has yet been made that did not contain the elements first embodied by him in a practical working instrument as early as 1876, and which was publicly exhibited in St. Louis the same year and again at the Centennial Exposition of the country at the time, while your own first will show that Mann & Co applied for a patent on this identical invention on behalf of McCannammy on September 7th of the same year, and since that public exhibition in the nature of the present player was known to the Patent Office or the public, either of this country or Europe.

WILLIAM N. TRUAX,  
Rialto Music Industry.

## THE SOLAR AND LUNAR ECLIPSES IN MAY, 1910

BY FREDERIC R. HONEY, TRINITY COLLEGE

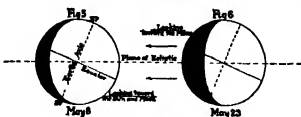
An examination of some of the conditions which govern the moon's motion reveals the great complexity of the lunar problem. While the earth's volume is nearly fifty times the moon's volume, its weight is more than eighty times—the density of the moon being only one-sixth that of the earth. As a consequence, the common center of gravity of the two bodies is within the earth at a distance of over a thousand miles from its surface, and it is at this point which moves in an elliptic orbit around the sun. Twice each month the earth and the moon exchange places with reference to the sun. The moon's orbit is an ellipse with the earth at one focus, and the plane of the orbit is inclined at an angle of a little over five degrees to the ecliptic. The eccentricity is one-eighth, but the elliptic form is subject to great variations. The moon revolves around the earth at an average velocity of a little over five-eighths of a mile a second, but its path in space is the resultant of its motion in its orbit and of the earth's motion at a velocity of sixteen and five-eighths miles a second, illustrated at Fig. 1. The arrows *A* and *B* represent the velocities of the earth and the moon in the respective orbits. When the moon is at *M*, between the earth and the sun, the direction of the moon's motion is opposite that of the earth. At *M'* the earth and the moon are moving in the same direction. At these points and at any intermediate point, *M''* or *M'''*, the moon's path is the resultant of the two motions. The plane of the moon's orbit rotates slowly in a direction contrary to her orbital motion, and the perigee has a slow motion in the same direction as that of the moon.

While the conditions which determine the moon's path are complex, observations extending over long periods of time show regularity in the recurrence of eclipses. (See *Scientific American*, Aug. 9, September 12th, 1908.) The direction of the line of nodes is shown in the plot of the earth's orbit for November 1909 at the date of the last lunar eclipse, and also in the plot for May, 1910. During the interval this line rotates through an angle of over nine degrees. If the positions of the earth at the date of the solar and lunar eclipses in May be correctly plotted, and the moon's orbit magnified, the situation of the moon relative to the ecliptic may be determined by an inspection of the plot. The arrow *A* shows the direction of rotation of the orbit, and *B* that of the moon's motion.

At the date of the solar eclipse (May 8 7 4) the moon's orbit radius is projected on the plane of the ecliptic in the earth's orbit radius, and the moon's position is in that part of the orbit which is below the ecliptic. This is shown more clearly in Fig. 2, in which the orbit is magnified one hundred and sixty times. The moon's position is shown at Greenwich noon from May 1st to the 18th, and also at the date of the eclipses. On May 8 7 4, the date of the total eclipse of the sun, the moon will be nearer perigee, and approaching the ascending node *N'* which will be reached between the 8th and the 10th. The enlarged plot shows clearly that the moon will be below the ecliptic its shadow will therefore be projected on the southern hemisphere. The path of totality will be between latitudes 40° and 70° degrees south, and as a partial eclipse it will be visible in Australia, New Guinea, and Java. On May 23 7 4 the moon will be below the ecliptic, and will pass the descending node *N''* on the same day. The beginning of the eclipse will be visible in portions of Africa, southwest Europe, North America except Alaska, South America, and the southern Pacific Ocean. The ending of totality in South America, North America excepting Alaska, and the central and southern Pacific Ocean.

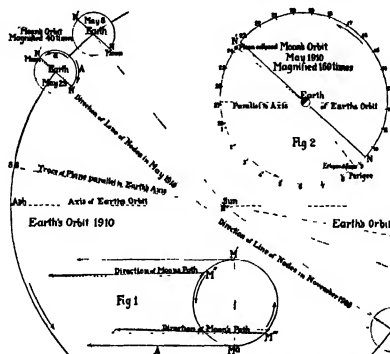
In Figs. 3 and 4 a portion of the earth's orbit in May and the moon's orbit drawn to the same scale, showing the projection on the plane of the ecliptic of the moon's path in space between the dates of the eclipses. The plot by the larger scale (Fig. 3) shows how points on the curves are obtained from the data for May 8th and 11th, Greenwich noon. The moon's orbit radius is forty parallel to the position

for each date in Fig. 2, and the curve is traced through the positions of the moon. The orbit of the moon at the date of the solar eclipse is also shown in the



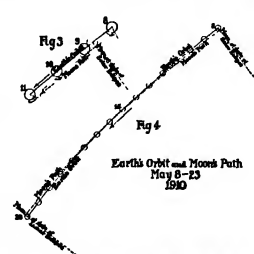
The earth during the May eclipses.

curve of the moon's path (Fig. 4) there is no point of inflection, that is, it is always concave toward the sun. The earth moves about three and one-third times the diameter of the moon's orbit each day. Figs. 5 and 6 are projections of the earth on a plane



Velocity and motion of earth and moon in their respective orbits. Smaller diagram shows the moon's orbit highly magnified.

which is parallel to its axis, and perpendicular to the plane of the ecliptic. In these projections between the vernal equinox and the summer solstice, more than one-half of the visible surface is illuminated. The



Projection of the moon's path on the plane of the ecliptic.

THE SOLAR AND LUNAR ECLIPSES IN MAY, 1910

arrows show the directions in which the eclipses will be observed.

## THE FINE HEAT OF THE FURNACE.

The principle of a mechanical delivery of mail has been established by the highly successful use of the pneumatic tube. This device is not the least conspicuous among the technical installations in the large

cities, and probably will be applied to a greatly ramified postal enterprise in the near future. The chief question that arises in consequence is whether a system of delivery similar to that of the pneumatic tube can be installed for greater distances and at the same time afford an enlarged rate of speed. At the present day pneumatic postal delivery is found only in the large cities, and being restricted to local business, asks a rather exorbitant price for such service. It is plain that the employment of such a method of distribution to distant points consequently among the cities also must give a wholly new aspect to the present systems of commercial intercourse. The first attempt made for the development of this idea were those of a company formed in Paris. A recent number of *Der Elektrotechnische Anzeiger* states minutely the technical formation and other progress of this enterprise which has reached the stage of thorough practicality, the result of the quite facile function of the experimental line in use. For the near future the Paris company intends to continue to extend the

larger (line of France through electric postal routes that shall not have frequent intermediate stations. The rate of speed proposed is 270 km. (175 miles) an hour. The capacity of the automatic system varies from 2 to 3 cm. (2 1/2 in.) approximately and the weight of a load consisting of letters and other postal pieces of similar dimensions shall not exceed 100 pounds.

The roadless so to speak, on which such delivery shall be practiced, must of course be superintended directly from all other avenues of physical communication must be inaccessible to the public and this result can be procured only either through an elevated road or through a tunnel for their experimental road the company has chosen the latter device and has built a tunnel which contains two rails, one above the other and of which the cross-section measures 8 sq. m. (9 1/2 sq. yds.) for the round trip beginning at intermediate stations branches and arches are provided.

The function of the experimental road, procured through an electric circuit, is such that the highest speed is reached very quickly. The cars have two wheels which run on the lower rail and also two rollers which follow the upper rail and hold the cars in position. The cars, moreover, have a middle compartment for mail, and other divisions for the motors and the device used as brakes. In front and behind the body of the cars is a conical point to diminish the resistance of the air. The frame of the cars is of iron and is very light. The motors are attached to the frame by means of levers which swing around an axis perpendicular to the direction of travel. The current is applied through an upper conduit and the brakes are worked by compressed air. This device is adapted for use within one minute and in a distance of three kilometers after the current is interrupted but is used only as an accessory to prevent the too rapid destruction of wheels and rails through the casual use of the rail brakes, a source of most active friction.

A patent recently granted to Carl Parkes of New York, describes a method for making incombustible lamp metallic filaments which consists in producing on a conducting core a highly refractory coating by decomposing in a vacuum containing the gas of a highly refractory metal in the presence of vapors of pyrogallol, with final reduction in a vapor of hydrogen. In detail, the vapors of chloride of chromium and pyrogallol are introduced in a vacuum containing the conductor, which serves as a core which later is then heated by the passage of a current the vapors are thereby decomposed, nascent carbon from the pyrogallol acts as a reducing agent, the vapors being formed. When the coating has thus been produced the vapors are removed and hydrogen gas introduced, whereby the deposition is reduced to metal.



Some of the little craft that competed in the racing.

## MODEL MOTOR-BOAT RACING

BY H. D. JONES

Model motor-boat racing, a new sport, has caught the popular fancy in England, and is being taken up in all the large cities. With a view to encouraging owners of models to enter their boats in the various competitions, challenge cups are offered by the clubs, and the conditions are made so broad that every designer feels that there is a chance to win a trophy. The prizes are awarded for speed, for workmanship, for the general appearance of the models, for the behavior of the machinery and the performance of the boats while on the water.

Not less than 5,000 spectators gathered recently at Chislinham Common, one of the many open spaces in Great London, to witness the regatta on the lake. The competition brought to the front some of the speediest racing models, some particularly fine ones of salmon steamers, liners, and torpedo boats, and other craft that were built for appearance rather than for racing.

The rules of racing were very simple. Each owner started his model boat to run a straight line over the course at the end of which officials appointed for the purpose waited to "catch" the racers and return them to their owners. After the models were once started no interference was permitted, the ability of the unaided boat to keep in a line for the finish of the course being part of the qualifications for prize winning.

Over a course measuring fifty-one yards, four boats were started in the first race, at which the accompanying pictures were taken. The best time was made by a steam hydroplane, the "Folly," in 9.14 seconds, "Bunny Jim," a gasoline craft, did the distance in 12.15 seconds, "Leda IV," a steamer, covered it in 15.45 seconds, and the fourth steamer, "Iduna," in 21 seconds.

On running of the final heat, boat against boat in pairs, the "Bunny Jim" scored three wins, the "Leda IV" two wins and the "Munro" one win thus taking first second and third prizes in the order named. The prizes were silver cups. The "Folly," the fastest boat in the eliminating trials, unfortunately ran off her course in the finale through her propeller fouling, and not being able to get going in the others, she had to give her opponents a walkover.

Steering troubles were responsible for many awkward results in the other races. While hailed by the spectators as adding greatly to the enjoyment of the regatta, the failure of the little craft to keep their pointing and the perversity of the machinery when

left to its own resources proved sources of great disappointment to the owners of models that failed to keep a true headway. Boats that had run as true as a die on practice spins exhibited a tendency at the regatta to run anything but straight, or not to run at all. Gasoline motors refused to start, pumps gave out, boilers leaked and the models exhibited a crankiness that showed there is a lot of improvement necessary before this sport can be brought to perfection. But that is why the regattas are encouraged. The weak points of the models are strengthened, and motor-boat building is benefited as the result of the lessons learned from the eccentric performance of the models in the cup race.

The reliability of electric power in model regattas was demonstrated again and again, one finely-modeled liner, the "Patriotic," although not built for speed, sailing through the certainty of her performance and the untrustworthiness of some of her competitors. The surprise of the meeting was the performance of a finely-modeled gasoline boat, the "Silver Dart." So fast was this entry, that the officials stationed to catch the models at the posts could not reach her when a little off the line, and she swerved away. Heading off down the pond, the little boat eluded a second attempt at seizure, and before she finally came to hand she had completed two round trips in brilliant if somewhat erratic fashion, to the admiration of the spectators.

The expediency of running the regattas on a circular instead of a straight course is also engaging the attention of the experts, the difficulty of handling and controlling the big fast boats being very evident. In sending these speedy craft on a straight run across a small pond serious accidents seem unavoidable. One beautiful model, the "Morsima II," after accomplishing several fine sprints, eluded the catchers, headed off on a course of her own, and wound up a series of mischievous gyrations by running full tilt into the bank, seriously damaging her hull and deranging the machinery. On a large lake, with a round course, such accidents, it is thought, might be avoided by a circle of catchers standing ready to keep the boats on their way until the distances is completed.

The model motor-boat regatta have justified their existence by promoting improvement and bringing unknown designers and inventors of motor-boats and motor-boat machinery to the front. Instead of proving their boats in third retirement on some out-of-the-way pond, a test that allows no possibility of com-

parison with the work of other designers, a number of men with kindred ambitions are brought together in these challenge meetings, and the test of the new boats capabilities is thorough and convincing.

The sport has progressed so far that a national challenge cup is ready for the competing designers and model owners of the United Kingdom, and the various clubs are about to hold a general meeting to draw up rules for the government of the cup regattas. Naval men are especially interested in the exhibitions. At the regatta, which was the subject of the accompanying pictures, Lieutenant William Barrett, R.N., attended with a party of naval cadets and rendered many services to the committee.

### Cost of 50,000 Candle-Power Street Lighting Plant, at ALBANY, N. Y.

As tungsten lamps require only 56 per cent as much energy as the carbon type for equal illumination, they have greatly reduced the cost per candle-power of incandescent street lighting.

What can be done with such lighting in a small town is illustrated by the following costs and operating expenses for a plant to generate and distribute tungsten street lamps of 50,000 candle-power total.

Unlike the merely nominal rating of arc lamps, which are a number of times their true candle-power, the tungsten lamps are rated at their actual mean candle-power in incandescent direction.

The capacity of 50,000 candle-power is selected as nearly suited for street lighting in many medium and small towns, according to the density of illumination required. If lamps of 40 candle-power are selected the capacity named amounts to 500, and with lamps of 30 candle-power the 50,000 candle-power capacity will operate 250, the efficiency being the same in either case.

With 500 of the 40-candle lamps spaced 100 feet apart, or 250 of the 30-candle lamps 200 feet apart, 50,000 feet in length of streets may be lighted much better than is usual in small places, while ordinary results may be obtained by spacing the 40-candle lamps 200 feet apart or the 30-candle 400 feet apart from 100,000 feet, or 15 miles, of streets.

In the following estimates of the first cost and operating expenses of a 50,000 candle-power plant, it is assumed that each part of the equipment, from the generators to the poles, is used merely for the purpose of street lighting, so that both the first cost and operating expenses for this lighting are stated, and that the



W. in connection with commercial service under like conditions.

The estimate of first cost covers a suitable plot of land, a station building of brick, concrete and steel, a storage tank to receive petroleum by the carload, a crude-oil engine and accessories, an electric generator with all necessary apparatus and instruments, pole lines on 50,000 feet of struts, circuits on these poles for the distribution of tungsten lamps of 30,000 aggregate

power for each of the 40-candle lamps burned 4,000 hours, or to 9.11 cent per lamp hour of burning. At each 40-candle tungsten lamp operates with 50 watts, the expense of 9.11 cent per lamp hour, including interest, amounts to 6.3 cents per kilowatt hour consumed in the lamp.

The same conclusion is reached by considering that at the efficiency of 1.35 watts per candle-power the production of 30,000 candle-power requires the delivery of 25,000 watts at the lamps and this during 4,000 hours amounts to 100,000 kilowatt hours, which into the annual expense of \$6,200 gives 6.2 cents as before.

#### The Coalinga Oil District, California.

A report on the geology and oil resources of the Coalinga oil district in the western part of Fresno and Kings counties California by Ralph Arnold and Robert Anderson has just been published.

Monterey 110 miles away with San Francisco Bay 200 miles away and with other points.

The report describes the topography, geology, paleontology and oil in the Coalinga district which have been in part described in an earlier report published by the Survey but not now obtainable. The present report includes a more complete discussion of the district and many new maps sections and other illustrations besides a paper by Irving C. Allen on the chemical and physical properties of the oils. Many interesting points in connection with the history of the region in past geologic ages are brought out and by means of careful descriptions of the formation a foundation is laid both for an accurate study of the occurrence of oil within this region and for the tracing of formations and oil horizons in other parts of California.

The report covers 184 pages and includes 52 plates and 3 first figures. The characteristic fossils of the rocks of the region are fully illustrated. These afford a means of identifying particular strata from place to place and of determining the depth and position of the oil-bearing sands. The discussions of the oil zones of the factors affecting the accumulation and the gravity of the oil of the relations of oil and water and of the origin of the oil are of broad general interest. The maps and diagrams and the detailed accounts of the geology of the wells and the character of their various products are of decidedly practical immediate value.

Bulletin 198 may be obtained without cost by applying to the Director of the Survey at Washington.

#### The current Supplement.

The complete Bulletin of the current Supplement No. 1790 deals with electric chemical action and boiler corrosion.



View of the lab., showing the start of a run.

gates candle power in any desired stage and fixtures on the poles for 500 of these lamps all erected and connected complete and ready to operate.

For this 30,000 candle-power plant as above with 500 lamp fixtures erected the total first cost is \$14,200 or 71 cents per candle-power capacity giving \$28.40 per 40-candle lamp. This cost of plant is based on present market prices of materials labor and apparatus and assumes ordinary conditions at the place of erection. In places where prices and freight rates are higher than is usual in the eastern half of the United States an increase of cost would result.

Operating expenses of the above plant will vary with the number of lamps used even though the total candle power remains at 30,000 because of the cost of lamp renewals and also with the hours that the lamps burn yearly.

All night and every night lighting to the extent of 4,000 hours per year is the most desirable and costs less per hour than lighting on moon and other scheduled times that run down as low as 1,500 hours yearly. Six or all night and every night lighting is gradually displacing the short hour service and the following estimate of operating expenses is for lamps burning 4,000 hours per annum. With 500 street lamps of 40 candle each making up the total 20,000 candle power capacity of the above plant and burning 4,000 hours the annual expense of operation would be \$6,200 including \$710 for interest on the first cost of \$14,200 at 5 per cent. This expense of \$6,200 covers all depreciation of the plant as well as the operating expenses that involve an immediate outlay of cash. Apart from the interest charge the annual expense of operating the 500 lamps of 40 candle-power each during 4,000 hours yearly is thus \$5,490. The total expense of \$6,200, including interest amounts to \$13.40



The "Minnehaha" being taken out for her trial.

published by the United States Geological Survey as Bulletin 398.

The district described which is about 15 miles wide and 60 miles long stretches along the northeast base of the Diablo Range and includes a band of productive oil land 4 miles wide and 15 miles long at its north end and a narrow strip of oil land along its southwestern boundary.

The region includes about 500 producing wells which range in depth from 600 to 4,000 feet and penetrate from 20 to 300 feet of oil sand. The product ranges from a black oil of 16 deg. Baume to a green oil of 13 deg. Baume. The yield of single wells differs greatly ranging from 4 to 2,000 barrels a day.

The district is the leading producer in California and one of the most productive in the world. Its production in 1907 was 9,972,723 barrels. In 1908 it was 10,285,168 barrels, and in 1909 it was probably 10,000,000 barrels or more.

The total quantity of oil thus far taken from the ground in the district to the end of 1909 was about 61,000,000 barrels of 42 gallons each leaving available a vast store of oil which has been roughly estimated at 3,747,000,000 barrels. Even if this great quantity of oil in the ground it is not possible to state whether all of it can ever be obtained.

Pipe lines connect the district with the seaboard at

The "Heavy Jim" makes a great pace.

There is often much less thinking and more talking concerning the stability of ocean-going steamers among those who ought to be better informed than concerns make sometimes as in the following. The matter is set right in an excellent article entitled 'Stability of Ships' Edward Person gives some interesting and convincing statistics. Tunnies in Being and Tunnies to Come is the title of an article which gives much useful information. Richard Thirk contributes an instructive account of the German army and shows how wonderful the military status of Germany is. John L. Cowan contributes a good article on the history of Silk accompanied by many excellent photographs.

The newspapers recently published articles on the discovery of what was pronounced to be the greatest natural vein ever discovered in the United States in north Lincoln County, Montana. Inquiry of the Geological Survey reveals the fact that there is very little if any truth in the statements made.



"Hordana," model of a steam motor boat.



"Paluchana," an electric motor boat.



"Belvedere II," a gasoline motor boat.



"Luna," a gasoline craft. Note the heavy wake.

GENERAL MOTOR-BOAT RACING.

# ROUGIER'S SPECTACULAR MONACO FLIGHTS

BY IRL PARIS CORRESPONDENT OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

A year ago, despite the offering of substantial prizes for flights across the bay of Monaco, no aviator made the attempt. This year, however, such big stunts have been made in the art of flight that there are probably a score of aviators who are willing to try a flight over water, even without any special arrangements being made for landing in this element to which they are forced to do this.

With the spectacular flights of Paulhan and Charles A. Lindbergh over the Pacific Ocean last January as an example, tonight, a famous French cyclist and automobilist who has lately joined the flying ranks early last month made some thrilling flights above Monaco Bay, photographs of which we reproduce.

The first flight of an aeroplane over Monaco Bay was made on March 3rd. Starting from the quay, Rougier described a figure eight above the bay and flew over Cape Martin at a height of 250 feet. He landed safely at his starting point after a flight of 45 minutes.

Rougier's second flight above the bay was made on the 6th instant in the presence of the Prince of Monaco and a large number of spectators. This time the flight took place over the bay from 5 to 10 minutes' duration. On the 7th he passed 100 feet above the line of fortifications as shown in our front-page illustration, and flew straight across the bay, attaining a height of 1,200 feet above Cape Martin. Despite some rather strong wind gusts the biplane flew with steadiness and without tipping backward or forward. On his way back to the starting point Rougier performed evolutions above the rocks of Monte Carlo at a height of 300 feet. Finally he flew back to the rock of Monaco and landed with precision upon the narrow quay.

On March 8th he again started from the quay of the port, and flew straight across the bay to Cape Martin, across the bay. He rose to a height of 400 feet, described a circle above the bay, passed over the rocky shore at Monaco and landed at his exact starting point after a 10-minute flight. The next day he made his longest and most spectacular flight, starting at 5:10 P. M. He rose rapidly, and described a circle above the sea. Returning he made two more circles above the Casino. Then, still rising, he flew above Monte Carlo (elevation 2525 feet). Passing over the summit, he flew to La Turbie, where he turned at a height of 300 feet, and flew back in his starting point. The length of this flight was 28 minutes and 15 seconds. On March 10th Rougier again flew around the bay of Monaco and on the 17th he made another fine flight of a quarter of an hour in the course of which he passed 400 feet above Cape Martin following the rocky shore of the coast in returning. These flights of Rougier on his Voisin biplane demonstrate that a considerable degree of automatic stability can be obtained by vertical variations between the main planes, and quite discredit the cable report just received from France to the effect that the Voisin brothers have given up as impractical their system of inherent automatic stability, and have adopted wing warping instead.

## Aeronautic News at Home and Abroad.

### LA BIEN'S FATAL ACCIDENT

Besides the record flights by Rougier above Monaco Bay, Le Bien, another famous automobile racing driver who has been flying a biplane monoplane, made a wonderful flight above the bay of San Sebastian, Spain, on the 2nd instant. He started in a high wind, and made several circles above the bay at a height of 150 feet, when suddenly the monoplane tipped overboard, and fell into the shallow water. The intrepid aviator was instantly killed. His machine, like that of the ill-fated Voisinage, was fitted with a Onneso prewing cylinder motor of 50 horse-power. The av-

iator power and the gyroscopic action of the motor undoubtedly had something to do with both of these fatal accidents. Le Bien made a speed record of 46.19 miles an hour (15 kilometers in 4 minutes 3 seconds) at the Heliopolis aviation meeting near Cairo last January.

### ACCIDENT TO A CURTIS BIPLANE.

While flying in a Curtis biplane above San Francisco Bay at Alameda, Cal., on the 10th instant Frank Johnson plunged into the water from a height of 80 feet owing to his losing control of the machine. Fortunately he was unharmed, and was able to extricate himself from the aeroplane (which was not badly damaged) and to swim toward the shore. He was rescued by men in a skiff.

### FIRST TEST OF PARASOL MONOPLANE.

The first test of Major von Parrenow's large monoplane occurred on the 14th instant above Lake Pan, in Germany. This machine has a spread and length of 45 feet, and is fitted with a 135-horse-power cylinder motor. The trial flights were made in a violent and gusty wind with two men in the machine. The monoplane capsize, and fell into the lake. The two engineers, Hoff and Lieberman, were rescued. This machine is provided with both wheels and floats, but

on the 18th instant, Lieberman had a narrow escape. He was at an estimated height of 800 feet when his propeller broke and flew off. Quickly stopping his motor, Lieberman skillfully glided to earth amid the cheers of the spectators.

### The Ascent of Mount McKinley.

Three months ago, a party headed by Thomas Lloyd, left Fairbanks, Alaska, for the purpose of climbing Mount McKinley. The summit was reached on April 3rd, after a month of steady climbing. A camp was established at the base of the peak in March. The companions of Thomas Lloyd were W. B. Taylor, Charles McGonigle, and Daniel Peterson. Six other men were also included in the party, but they were left in care of the four camps established on the way toward the top of the peak. Up to 12,000 feet the ascent was easy, but the next 4,000 feet were climbed only by heaving steps out of solid ice. When the 18,000-foot level was reached, a final push was made by the four men named, with success. The expedition had its intention in the violent controversy which raged when Dr. Cook was lecturing to settle the point whether or not he ever climbed the mountain, and to prove that it could be done, an expedition was financed by August Peterson and William McPherson.

No trace of Dr. Cook's ascent could be found on either of the two peaks which were climbed by McKinley. No records of his were discovered.

Various estimates have been made of the mountain's height.

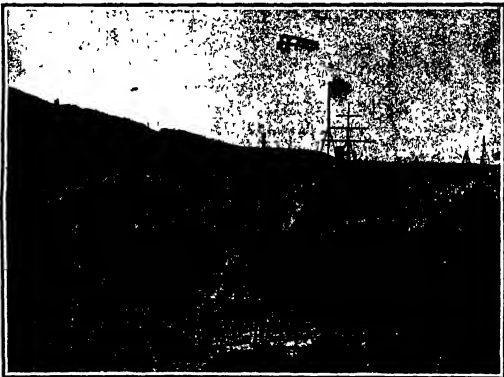
A. A. Dickson, an American prospector, estimated it at 26,000 feet, and gave the peak its present name.

Robert Dunn, who made four attempts to climb the peak, estimated its height at 20,000 feet.

Inasmuch as the present party was not properly equipped to measure the height of the mountain, its achievement is not of much scientific value. Fortunately Prof. Herschel C. Parker of Columbia University has expressed his intention of climbing the peak, regarding it as a perfectly difficult feat. Dr. Parker will approach the peak from the south-east side, and will study the glacier and various phenomena. He will take with him scientific instruments, by the skillful use of which undoubtedly his achievement will be of much scientific value. The party will be accompanied by a party of four unskilled but hardy explorers. Dr. Parker's claim to the credit of the climb is, incidentally to dispute Lloyd's claim.

### A New Way of Lighting Stages.

A new system of electric lighting for theater scenes was tried not long since at the Imperial Opera of Berlin, and it is stated, with great success. It is the invention of the Spanish engineer, Portany, and uses an arc lamp as the source of light. The rays of the lamp, instead of falling directly on the scene, are thrown against a series of silk bands which are unrolled and set in any position by means of pulleys. The bands serve to reflect the light and change it into a perfectly diffused light. The bands are made of a cloth which is formed in a quarter of a sphere and composed of a steel cap which is treated with a dark white coating. The diffused light is sent into this dome and gives a brilliant illumination of the scene. Another interesting device is used to dispose with the ordinary clouds which always have a false appearance to the audience. These now appear to be quite plain and are made of thin sheets of cardboard. The mirrors which reflect light between the scenes are placed in the auditorium. Some persons are of the opinion that the present invention forms a considerable progress from an artistic as well as a technical and economical standpoint.



Rougier flying over the yachts in the Bay of Monaco in his Voisin biplane. THE AVIATOR FLEW OVER MONT CARLO (ELEVATION 2625 FEET), AND TERRIBLE MONACO FOR TWO WEEKS.

(whether or not it started from the water is not known as yet.)

### FLIGHT OF THE VANDERBILT MONOPLANE.

Credit for producing the first aeroplane to rise from water and fly must apparently be given to M. Henri Fabre, who, according to the French journal *L'Aero*, succeeded in getting his combined hydroplane and aeroplane to leave the water and make several flights 1,200 to 1,500 feet in length at heights of from 6 to 10 feet. The experiments were made at the Port de la Made at Marseilles, a city near Marseilles. The first successful flight from water was made on March 1st.

### NEW RECORD OF FLIGHT WITH PARASOILS.

On the 15th instant Henry Farman broke all records of flight with one or more parasails by carrying M. Herardson, of the Daily Mail, and Mme. Farman for an hour, 2 minutes and 25 seconds. The performance was accomplished with a new and smaller biplane than he has been in the habit of using. Just a month later, on the 10th instant, Dr. H. Kline, a Belgian, broke the world record for flight with one passenger by flying 2 hours and 20 minutes at Chalon. This record was also made with a Farman biplane.

### A NEW CROSS-COUNTRY MONOPLANE.

Emile Dubouché, on April 3rd, won the 100-kilometer (62-mile) cross-country flight prize offered by La Nature. He made a fine flight from Savigny-sur-Orge to Paris (about 68 miles) in 1 hour and 50 minutes.

### REVIEW OF A FANTASTIC WRECKING IN FLIGHT.

While practicing at Pau with his biplane monoplane

# An Automatic Projecting Lantern with Electrical Control

BY JACQUES BOYER

Hitherto it has been necessary for a lecturer using lantern illustrations to employ an assistant to operate the lantern and insert each slide at the proper moment. M. Mouille has invented an automatic lantern (Fig. 1) which dispenses with the services of the assistant. The ingenious mechanism which inserts and removes the slides can be adapted to any projecting lantern and enables the lecturer, by pressing an electric button on the platform, to show any picture at will. The invention will be especially serviceable to teachers, as is shown by Fig. 4. The picture can be thrown on the white wall of the class room, and if a powerful source of light is employed it will not be necessary to darken the room to an extent sufficient to prevent the taking of notes or the use of the blackboard.

The lantern slides are attached to a conveyor, composed of two chains connected by grooved cross-bars, which pass over a skeleton drum, formed of two iron disks connected by six rods. Each slide is firmly held between a fixed and a movable bar of the conveyor by

through the rotor *R*, which consequently, remains motionless. By pressing the key *a*, the current is sent through the motor circuit in the direction indicated by the arrows, and by releasing *a* and depressing *a'* the current and the rotation of the motor are reversed. The inductance lamps *L* and *L'* are bridged on the

of the motor and the slides in the reverse direction is similarly produced by partially depressing the key *b*.

## Tide at Panama.

The average time of high water at places on the Pacific coast of the Central American isthmus is three hours after the moon's meridian passage at Panama. The average time of high water at Colon is six minutes, and at Greytown one hour after the moon's meridian passage at Colon. In other words, as Colon and Panama are nearly on the same meridian, it may be stated that high tide will occur at the Pacific or Panama end of the Panama Canal, on the average, two hours and fifty-four minutes after high tide at the Atlantic or Colon end, and high tide will occur at the Pacific or Brito end of the Nicaragua Canal, two hours after high tide at the Atlantic or Greytown end.

The level of mean tide is practically the same at both ends of both of these isthmian canal routes, but at Panama the tide ranges from 10 feet above to 10 feet below mean sea level, while at Colon it only ranges from 6 or 8 inches above to 6 or 8 inches below



Fig. 1.—An automatic projecting lantern.

keys to diminish sparking, but they also serve another useful purpose. When the key *a* is partially depressed, so that it does not touch either *r* contact, the rotor circuit is completed through the lamp *L*, which greatly increases the resistance of the circuit, and the current flowing through the rotor is further diminished by more than one-half by the shunt effect of the lamp *L'*. Hence, the motor turns so slowly that it is an easy matter to stop the desired slide exactly in front of the lens, by releasing the key *a* at the proper moment. Neither of these effects is produced when the key *a* is fully depressed, because the lamp *L* is then short-circuited by the key and the resistance of the circuit is thus made so small that very little current is diverted through the other lamp. A slow movement

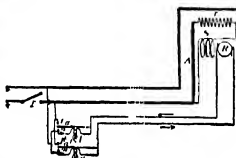


Fig. 2.—Electric wiring for automatic projector.

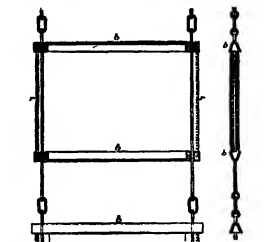


Fig. 3.—Front and side views of chains carrying slide holders.

the tension of the spring *r* (Fig. 2). The drum is driven by a small electric motor, by means of a thin gear wheel, and, as it rotates, the slides are brought successively opposite the projecting lens. In this operation the flexible conveyor carrying the slides takes up from a box behind the drum and delivered to a receiving box beneath the lantern.

The motor is shunt wound, so that it can be reversed by reversing the current in the armature coils. In this way a slide which has already passed the lens can be brought back and projected again. If desired, the electrical connections by means of which the apparatus is controlled are shown diagrammatically in Fig. 2. Beneath the lecture table is a switch *L*, the closure of which sends a current through the electric arc *A* of the projecting lantern, and also through the field coils *S* of the motor, which are connected in parallel with the circuit containing the arc and its rheostat. On the table are two double contact keys *a* and *a'*. The upper contacts of these keys, *1* and *1'*, are connected with one wire of the general circuit, the lower contacts, *2* and *2'*, are connected with the other wire, and the fixed ends of the keys are connected, respectively, with the two brushes of the commutator attached to the rotor or armature *R* of the electric motor. Hence, when neither key is depressed, both brushes are in connection with the same main wire, and no current flows

mean sea level, and at Brito or San Juan del Sur the tide ranges to the extreme from 4 feet above to 5 feet below mean sea level, while at Greytown it ranges less than 5 inches above and below mean sea level.

Thus with a sea-level signal built along either the Nicaragua or the Panama route, the would be through currents from the Pacific to the Atlantic at the time of high tide at the Pacific terminal, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific at the time of low tide at the Pacific terminal.

In answer to the specific question: Assuming that the Pacific tide plane about 8 feet above to 10 feet below the Atlantic tide plane, and that the approximate difference in level of the Atlantic at the same time say at Greytown Nicaragua, it may be stated that at the time of high tide at San Juan del Sur it is two times after high tide at Greytown, and if the assumed rise of 8 feet at San Juan del Sur is above mean sea level the difference in level between the two ends of the canal would be about 7½ feet.

To secure accurate information with reference to the weather conditions Dr. William Shaw, Director of the Meteorological Office of Great Britain, has been traveling in western Canada with reference to the alleged general changes in the climate owing to the settlement of the country. Dr. Shaw is reported to state that he has observed that the people of all localities are under the impression that the climate of their district is undergoing a change. The statistics do not, however, bear out this view. There are no indications that there are any permanent changes in the climate.

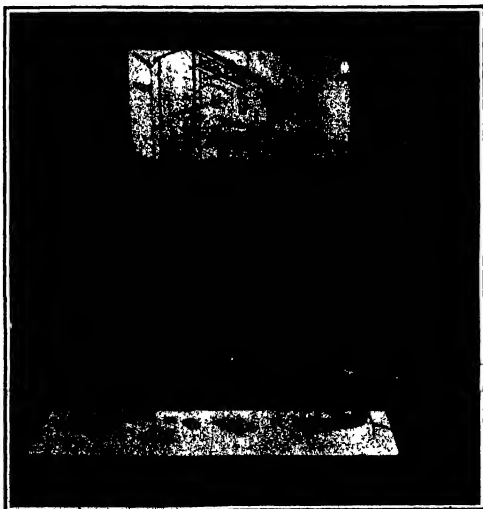


Fig. 4.—A lecture illustrated by the automatic projector, controlled by the lecturer himself.

AN IMPROVED APPARATUS FOR PROJECTING PICTURES.

## INSECT PESTS IN HOUSE AND STORE

BY HAROLD BASTIN

Insects as a class feed literally upon anything and everything from which nourishment may be extracted by dust of strong jaws harked up by equally strong digestions. A substance may be "bone dry, almost as hard as rock and in every way unyielding, yet so long as its origin is traceable to the animal or vegetable kingdom at least one insect probably very many kinds will find in it the wherewithal of existence. And because they are omnivorous in the fullest sense of the word, insects rank as the worst pests with which civilized man has to contend whether his calling be that of a grower, a distributor or a disseminator of the necessities and luxuries of life. Much has been written respecting the depredations of insects. Everyone will probably know something at least of the tax which has been imposed upon the exchangers of this country by such insects as the Colorado beetle and the "beetle" of the orange groves. But it is with certain pests which while less devastating in their activities, affect chiefly the individual comfort of our readers that the writer proposes briefly to deal in this place. Probably few people realize what a number of insect pests are to be found in the ordinary house or larder. In some penetrate the very fabric or our dwelling places—that is, so far as the woodwork is concerned. They burrow into our furniture and our books, and consume by slow degrees the very carpets on our floors and the clothing in our closets and drawers.

Among the most widely distributed of these domestic pests are certain tiny beetles of the genus *Anobium*. Their ancestral home was in the woods and lanes where they are still abundantly represented, frequenting the dead branches of trees and shrubs. They have, however, found an entry into almost every old house in the land, as well as into many a modern dwelling, where they accomplish considerable mischief by boring into and consuming furniture, beams and woodwork in general. This successful assault of our houses must have been accomplished many centuries ago, for one of the commonest species was dubbed "stone-eaters" by the old naturalists and is so called at the present day. This insect is barely one-sixth of an inch in length, gray brown in color, cylindrical in shape, with its head hidden in, or overhanging by, the thorax. The tiny grubs are soft-bodied, with hard heads and—as their work bears witness—powerful jaws. It is not difficult to detect the presence of these grubs in woodwork. Suppose that you have a valuable Chippendale chair, and that you notice beneath it upon the floor, certain little heaps of yellowish dust. Inspection of the chair itself reveals minute holes

scattered about the surface of the woodwork—much as though the piece of furniture had been "peppered" from a distance with a charge of dust-shot. These signs are indisputable evidence that your chair is beetle-riddled, and unless by some means you can



Figures damaged by the tobacco beetle.

contrive to dislodge the pests, they will slowly but surely reduce the woodwork to dust and chips. When once a piece of furniture is assailed by *Anobium*, it is a very difficult matter to eradicate the pest. Several methods have been suggested. One plan is to place the piece of furniture in a refrigerating chamber

temperature be kept a little above that of freezing water, not a single beetle will be alive when the freezing is over. Often it would be impossible to adopt either of these methods, and in such cases the best plan is first to place the piece of furniture in a very hot room for some hours, then to reject, by means of a very fine-sprayed nozzle, a poisonous liquid—such as kerosene or creosote of potent quality—into as many of the tiny "worm holes" as can be found on the surface. Then remove the furniture at once to a cold place, when the sudden change of temperature will cause the poisonous fumes to be drawn into the innermost recesses of the burrows. Finally, the holes on the surface should be stopped up with paraffin wax.

The various species of *Anobium*, and their bigger relatives of the genus *Xestobium*, by no means confine their attacks to furniture. The whole wood-

work of old houses has been so completely riddled by their borings as to render the structures unsafe. Indeed, a team that has been tempted by these insects for a number of years is little better than an ear of corn containing a mass of wood-dust. A photograph showing damage done to woodwork is here reproduced. *Xestobium*, by the way, is the common "death-watch," while *Anobium* also is the habit of making a tapping sound. The nocturnal tapping of these insects, distinctly audible in a room where there is an otherwise complete absence of noise, has for many centuries been regarded by the superstitious as a warning of the approach of death. This uncanny interpretation of a mysterious sound is scarcely surprising when we remember that only in recent years have naturalists discovered its true cause. The little beetle has been found in some secluded spot, jerking its hard head at regular intervals upon the surface of the wood beneath it. So far as can be told, its rattlings can constitute a kind of courtship ritual. Obviously they have no connection with the latter end of mankind. So that the old "death-watch" theory has been exploded!

While speaking of these beetles, the writer may mention another insect known as the "book-borer." It is very minute, soft, and wingless. Its color is that of pale amber, while it is not distantly related to the "white ants" of tropical countries. *Atropus detrita*, to give the book borer its scientific name, is very common in old houses, especially if they are damp. As its popular name indicates, it may be found among old books and manuscripts, where it seems to browse upon the surface of the paper. It has also been known to damage collections of dried plants and in-

(Continued on page 345.)



Dust from the borings of the bark-eater on a bottle-neck.



Wine beetle seen showing the borings of the bark-eater on a bottle-neck.

for a week or two, and then attempt to kill the beetles and their grubs by cold. It is somewhat doubtful, however, whether even this severe ordeal will destroy all the beetles. Another way, and probably a more effectual one, is to place the furniture—first taking it to pieces if necessary—in a hot chamber or oven, and there bake it for twenty-four hours or more. If the



In apple (at its base) which has been the home of a cherry-tree in the middle of the wood.



Ginger root attacked by the pest beetle.



Ginger root damaged by the tobacco beetle.



A book showing the ravages of the book-borer.



Old zinc nails showing the borings of a beetle.



Honeycombed attacked by the pest beetle. INSECT PESTS IN HOUSE AND STORE.



Grubs of which (represented) which have been eaten from the wood.



**FIRE-PROOF CONSTRUCTION AND OUR ANNUAL FIRE LOSS.**

It is estimated that our annual fire loss, and the sum expended for fire protection, etc., represent an annual sum that is approximately equal to the cost of building the Panama Canal. The public is awakening to the economic significance of this fact, and business men generally are beginning to realize that the best way to guard themselves against the fire peril is, not so much to institute elaborate means for extinguishing fires and burden themselves with heavy insurance, as to so erect their buildings that it will be difficult for a serious fire to originate, and, if it does, impossible for it to obtain a serious hold upon the building.

The growth in favor of fireproof construction has been indirectly stimulated by the growing price of lumber, the advance having been so great that for some forms of construction there is but little extra initial cost involved in putting up strictly fireproof construction. Indeed, from an investment standpoint it can be demonstrated that the fireproof building is the only really economical building. The saving in the cost of insurance, reduction in depreciation charges, the guarantee against interruption of business by fire, combine to make an unbreakable building the cheapest in the long run.

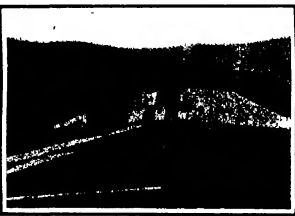
The phenomenal development in reinforced concrete construction must be regarded as one of the most significant movements in the broad field of architecture and engineering. It is not too much to claim that the lion's share of improvements in this direction is to be credited to American engineers. The expert mental work on example structural members, and especially upon beams and columns, has led to a pretty thorough knowledge of the true principles of construction to be adopted for reinforced concrete when used in such members, and the introduction of a reinforcement designed to adequately take up the shearing strains, as supplied for instance in the Kahn system, has made it possible to produce beams, rigid ere, stringers, and other members subject to bending

both the ribs and the lath being made from the same sheet of steel. The object of the ribs is to give sufficient stiffness and rigidity to the lath, so that when used in walls and partitions no slabs, such as are required by the ordinary plain lath, will be necessary. When it is used as reinforcement for floor and roof slabs, no wood centering or falsework is required, for the ribs give the required stiffness. If this sheathing is used for partitions, it is merely necessary to provide a fastening at the floor and the ceiling. The sheets are then set in place and the plaster applied directly to both sides.

For sitings of factories and similar one and two-story buildings, a framework of steel or concrete is



Applying the plaster to a rib-stiffened steel lath and plaster partition.



Building a roof of reinforced concrete construction.

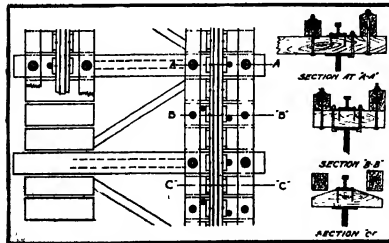
**FIRE-PROOF CONSTRUCTION**

provided to which the sheets are attached. Lines of supports are provided, about six feet apart and the 1½ ribs is properly fastened to them. The frame work is similar to that which would be provided where the ordinary wood sheathing or corrugated iron is used, except that the girts can be placed a greater distance apart. When the steel has been properly placed a special stereo plaster is applied in two coats.

Where the system is used in connection with floors and roofs, supports are ordinarily provided about five feet apart. The sheets are laid directly over the supports with the lath face downward. All lint is necessary to complete the work is to put in the concrete on the upper sides of the sheets to the required thickness. Only a sufficient amount of concrete will flow through to give a thorough clinch on the steel. This leaves a roughened surface on the underside, which provides a satisfactory key for the plaster applied on the ceiling below. By use of reinforcing materials similar to this, nearly every type of building no matter how small, may be built fireproof at a cost very little greater than the ordinary wood framing.

**IMPROVED ELEVATED RAILWAY CONSTRUCTION**

The combination cross tie and "block" in construction shown in the accompanying drawing has for its object to reduce the noise of elevated railroads and increase the light to the street below. An open construction is provided by the rails have an almost continuous support which tends to absorb and stop the vibration sent out from the rails. Most of the noise from a train on an elevated structure is due to the passage of the wheels over the rail joints and there is no doubt that this noise is intensified by the inefficient support of the rails at such points. Should the three "block" ties be removed, letting the rail free of support, and a wheel be rolled over the rail, the vibrating noise would be very great. By inserting "block" ties between, this noise is decreased in proportion to the number of the inserted units. It is natural for engineers to copy precedents, and for this reason the usual system of cross ties, which, by a process of evolution, has been found most satisfactory for a road constructed on the ground has been adopted for elevated railroads, with the result that an enormous amount of noise is produced whenever a train passes over the rails, and the street is unnecessarily darkened by the multiplicity of cross ties. This proposed system of building an elevated railroad has been suggested by Mr. Carl R. Klein, of 1245 Columbia Avenue, Chicago, Ill.



IMPROVED ELEVATED RAILWAY CONSTRUCTION

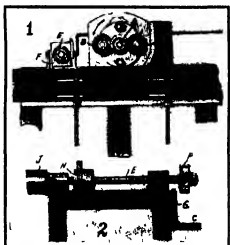
strengthen, whose strength can be determined with dependable accuracy.

Side by side with the development of reinforced concrete members, such as are suitable to what might be called the skeleton frame of concrete building, much experimental work has been done in producing a suitable form of walling or paneling, for filling in the broad open surface represented by the wall panel, floor and the roofing. In the accompanying illustrations we show what is known as the Ribbed method of steel sheathing, which is an interesting case of development along this line. It consists of a special steel lath stiffened by rigid high ribs,

**ATTACHMENT FOR WOODWORKING MACHINES.**

The accompanying engraving illustrates an attachment for woodworking machines generally known as routers or slickers used to wash and door factories for cutting rabbets and moldings in the joints to receive the panels. When a door is to be provided with a pane of glass, it is usually necessary to cut away the molding or rabbet at one side so that the glass can be inserted when the door is completed and be held in position in the usual manner by means of putty. In order to avoid a second operation to cut away the molding for this purpose the auxiliary cutter shown in the accompanying engraving is provided. The auxiliary cutter is arranged to be moved axially into and out of operative position, so that when it is no longer desired to cut away the molding the operation of the auxiliary cutter can be stopped.

In Fig. 1, which shows a face view of the machine, the main shaft is shown at 4 and mounted upon it is the main rubber head, provided with the rollers 5 which form the rabbet and molding immediately in front of the cutter head is a table 6 on which the work is supported and a pair of guides 7 for holding the work in position. The auxiliary cutter is mounted on a shaft 8. It consists of a pair of rollers 9 and 10 provided with a pair of blades 11. Fig. 2 shows a side view of the auxiliary cutter moved to its operative position so that it clears the work (4) supported on the table 6. The shaft of the auxiliary cutter is provided with a yoke and roller 12 by which it may be moved axially so as to bring the cutter into engagement with the



ATTACHMENT FOR WOODWORKING MACHINES

work 6. The driving pulley of the shaft 8 is shown at 13. The inventor of this attachment is Mr. A. G. Pett of 1283 Franklin Avenue, Atlanta, Oregon.

**SHAFT COUPLING**

Pictured in the accompanying engraving is an improved coupling of the type adapted for connecting the shafting ends of two reversible shafts. Briefly the device consists of a key and a sleeve which serves to hold the key in place while a second locking key serves to retain the sleeve in position over the two shafts. As shown most clearly in the actual view Fig. 3 and in Fig. 4, a keyway is cut in each shaft, and a pit or recess is formed at the end of the keyway. The shafts are turned so that the two key ways are in alignment and then a key of the form shown in Fig. 4, and indicated at 4, Fig. 2, is fitted into the keyway. The key is provided with lugs at the end adapted to fit into the pits of the keyways. Before bringing the shafts together, a sleeve 5 is fitted over one of them. This sleeve, as shown in the cross-sectional view, Fig. 1, is formed with a keyway adapted to fit over the key 4 when it is moved over the abutting ends of the shafts. To hold the sleeve in position, the key 5 is inserted into an exterior keyway in the sleeve 5 and is provided with a pair of lugs 6 which pass through the sleeve and into the two shafts. A screw 7 is used to hold the key 5 to the sleeve 5. In this manner the two shafts are rigidly connected. Owing to the large

diameter and massive construction of the sleeve *C* and owing to the manner in which the two keys are interlocked the coupling has a strength equal to that of any portion of either shaft. With the shafts assembled they are in the position of a single shaft and it is impossible to turn on shaft relatively to the other as they are so firmly united as to prevent them to a considerable extent. A detail of this coupling has



A SHAFT COUPLING

Invented by Mr. William F. Baum of 2303 Cedar Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

#### A NEW SYSTEM FOR HIGH TENSION INSULATION

A patent recently issued to Louis Stimpson of Brooklyn, N. Y., covers a novel and improved system of insulation for high potential electric conductors to be used in various relations and for various purposes such as power transmission and for any wire or cables employed as staves for televisions or power mains and other purposes and in electric telegraphy and telephony as well as in general commercial work. It marks a radical departure in the development of insulator systems.

The system comprehends a series of insulators preferably of a thimble type and a series of other insulators of a rod type, the thimble type insulators being all connected with the rod type insulators and together forming a series of insulating parts which may be extended indefinitely.

The under surface of the thimble type insulators will be of course at all times comparatively dry. Each thimble type insulator acts like an umbrella covering the upper end of the rod type insulator below it and connected



A NEW SYSTEM OF HIGH-TENSION INSULATION

therewith. By keeping it dry under the most unfavorable conditions (as for instance, when all the insulators are subjected to the action of a diving rain) hence the group of insulators must at all times afford adequate insulation for all practical purposes.

This system will practically prevent leakage and undesirable grounding of the conductors from support structures for the same.

In this system the various parts may be readily detached and replaced by other parts and the total number of parts may be increased or diminished at will after the original structure is built. This feature being especially important in instances where after the installation of a structure (the voltage is to be increased).

Not the least important feature of the system is the simplicity of the structure and the fact that the structure as a whole when it is erected and is operating does not thereby insulate, as it does not, as the complete structure is built in all of its parts as well as in its entirety from the effects of sudden and abrupt accidental strains usually so destructive to mechanism of this kind.

#### SIMPLE LETTER SCALE

An inventor has recently struck upon the simple idea of using coins to weigh letters, so that the value of the coin will represent the value of the stamp that must be applied to the letter. A simple beam scale is used provided at one end with a clip for holding the letter and at the other end with a clip for holding the coins. If the scale is to be used for first-class mail the rates for which are two cents an ounce the fulcrum of the scale is so placed that a letter weighing an ounce would be just counterbalanced by two one-cent coins in the other clip. As shown in our illustration the scale beam is made of sheet metal bent to channel form with the ends turned over and terminating in knifed edges pivoted on which the letter and coin clips are suspended. A detail of one of these clips is shown in Fig. 2. It is made of a single piece of metal bent to form two jaws which may be roughened or crimped to provide a better gripping surface. At the upper end of the clip are two ears bent upward and provided with apertures to receive the pivots of the scale beam. A half-shaped handle serves as a fulcrum for the scale. In order to adjust the scale accurately a screw hole is provided on the under side of the scale beam. The scale beam is formed of two ears which pass through a slot in the pole and are bent back upon it to hold it in place as indicated in Fig. 3. The poles may be definitely adjusted to bring the scale to a correct balance. The inventor of this ingenious letter scale is Mr. Willis J. Fink, of Elk Point, South Dakota.

#### INLET VALVE AND SCREEN FOR PUMPS

The device which is illustrated in the accompanying engraving is adapted particularly for use in con-



SIMPLE LETTER SCALE

nection with water pumps in boats the object being to strain the water that is drawn in by the pump. The structure is provided with a special attachment whereby it may be cleaned instantly while the valve is in service. The body of the valve is indicated at *A* in the illustrations and is provided with a branch *B* whereby it may be connected with the pump. The lower portion of the body is enlarged to form a valve cap *C*. Screwed to the cap is an extension member *D* which at its lower end is formed with a screen *E*. A valve seat plate *F* is secured in the chamber *G* and upon it rests the valve *G*. In the top of the chamber *G* a screw *H* is provided to limit the upward lift of the valve *G*. Flanking centrally through the valve and casing is a rod *J* which at its lower end is fitted with a pair of blades *A*. These are adapted to be pressed against the outer



INLET VALVE AND SCREEN FOR PUMPS

surface of the screen *E* under tension of a coil spring *L*. By rotating the rod *J* the blades *E* are caused to scrape the screen *E*, and thus remove any dirt that might clog the openings of the screen. Mr. O. H. Laffman, of Potlatch, Idaho, has just secured a patent on this improved inlet valve and screen.

#### THE INVENTOR OF HYPER ARMOR

Among pioneer inventors to whom the diving dream in its present perfected form owes so much, was William Hamble Taylor. The inventor of the Hyper Armor, his latest and most successful attempt ever made, is now patented by the Taylor patent of June 20th 1910 (No. 878) in which the essential feature was the novel feature was the inclusion of compressed air without an influx of water. Prior to this time there had been the diving chamber and the diving bell of which the latter introduced by Smeaton in 1778 was the first of the modern practical device for submarine exploration. The diving bell has been developed along side of the diving chamber and is still in use.

The general appearance of Taylor's diving armor was like that of a knight's suit of mail except for a prominent bulge in the body piece from the surface and penetrating the body piece at the bulge supplied the fresh air while a short pipe entered the body piece on the other side and was provided with a valve which carried off the exhaust. Although diving armor has now reached its perfected state this valve has never been materially improved upon. The accompanying illustration is reproduced from Mr. Taylor's patent.



FIRST DIVING ARMOR

#### AN IMPROVED TOBACCO PIPE

The principal objection to a tobacco pipe as every smoker knows lies in the fact that nicotine accumulates to such an extent as to partially close the stem and detached particles of the disintegrating drug are apt to be drawn into the mouth. The saliva is also apt to flow into the stem and collect there. To obviate these disagreeable features of the ordinary stem, many inventions have been made designed to trap the saliva and the nicotine. The accompanying engraving illustrates one of the latest inventions along this line. The pipe bowl is provided with two openings one above the other and these are adapted to communicate with two channels in the stem. The stem is provided with a core piece in which the channels are formed. The core is indicated in the cross-sectional view Fig. 2 and is shown in full in the large view Fig. 1. The upper channel extends the full length of the core and through this the smoke is drawn. Near the lower end of the stem the core is provided with several ducts extending downwardly and rearwardly to the lower channel of the core so that any nicotine or solid and liquid particles drawn up with the smoke will be trapped by the ducts and will soon



AN IMPROVED TOBACCO PIPE

mutate in the lower channel. It will be observed that the lower channel does not extend the full length of the core, so that it is impossible to draw any of the nicotine into the mouth. At the opposite end of the core a chamber is formed in the bottom of the core piece which communicates with the smoke channel near the mouthpiece. This serves to trap the saliva that may enter the smoke channel. The stem of the pipe is joined near the outer so that the outer section may be removed and the core piece withdrawn for the purpose of cleaning it. The inventor of this improved pipe is Dr. George Bradley, of 915 Beech Avenue, Spokane, Wash.



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bathe the burrow into the substance of the cork, just as the caterpillar of the big goat moth burrows into the heart of an oak or an apple tree.

The presence of the wine-cork pest is manifested in an accumulation of cork-dust and refuse ("frass") round the exposed portions of the cork. This accumulation may be seen in one of the pictures herewith. Later, if the grubbeles are numerous, the cork is so tunnelled that the wine seeps—this being the case

[illegible]



By microphotographic methods, the vibrations in an incandescence filament, due to the expansion and contraction caused by the passage of an alternate current, have been recorded. An arc lamp was used as the source of light for photographic purposes, and if the arc is fed from the same alternator as the incandescence filament, the vibrations are seen from the plate to synchronize with the vibrations of the filament. The arc lamp was a 100-watt-candle-power arc lamp, supplied with alternate current at 60 alternations per second. When the arc lamp was operating, a slight humming noise was perceptible even at a distance of three yards. The experimenter considers that this may be due to the fact that the arc lamp is not a perfect sine-wave generator, as alternate currents are.



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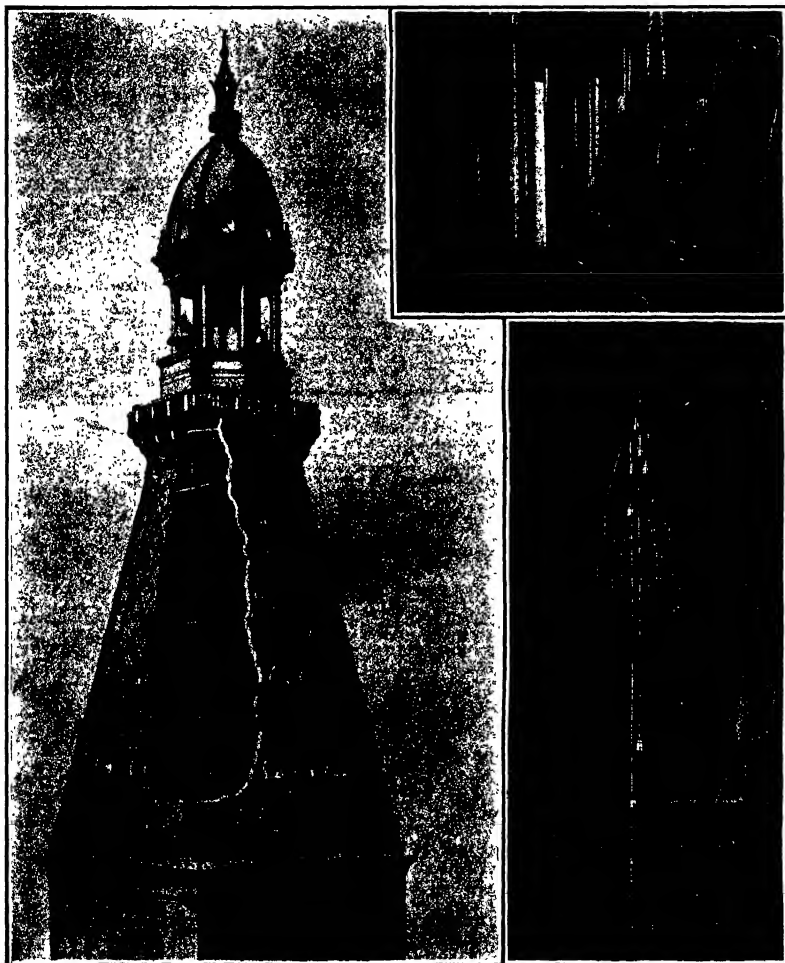
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The upper ends of the elevator shafts.

Motors installed at top of tower.

Position of elevators in shafts.

HOW THE PROBLEM OF INSTALLING THE ELEVATORS OF THE METROPOLITAN TOWER WAS SOLVED.—[See page 248.]

## SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

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WANT NOT A GOOD ROAD LABORATORY?

THE problem of maintaining good roads, always a most important one in the United States, has recently been rendered of critical urgency by the rapid development of the automobile—the most destructive vehicle to road surface that ever ran on our modern highways. The public resentment or regret, as the case may be, against the destructive effects of automobile traffic, somewhat tempered by the recognition of the fact that it has been the most active instrument in awakening the public to the necessity for abandoning the old slipshod methods of road building and constructing them according to the best engineering practice.

If it were possible to rebuild all our roads of the most approved and highest class of construction, and if the most suitable materials were everywhere available, the problem would be greatly simplified, but such uniform excellence is impossible, both because of the cost and of the difficulty of finding the ideal materials within convenient limits. The local conditions in a country of such wide extent and such varied geological formation as the United States, the question of the best kind of roads to build in any locality must be determined by the local conditions—the climate, particularly as regards the amount and distribution of the rainfall, the nature of the underlying soil its bearing capacity, capacity for quick drainage, etc. and last, the character of the materials available for road building, must all enter into the problem.

The French engineers, with their characteristic thoroughness, have long recognized the importance and complexity of the good roads problem, and nearly half a century ago they commenced that careful investigation which is still being carried on by a force of trained experts. The analytical study of the subject, which was set on foot by M. Ruffet, Engineer of Roads and Bridges, as far back as 1868 has developed into the present municipal laboratory, which has so greatly extended its field of research today. It is considered by many to be the finest in existence. At the date mentioned, apparatus was installed for testing the resistance of paving materials to wear by friction, which was followed by a machine for testing the resistance to abrasion of the stone used in Macadam roads. The laboratory also includes means for artificially producing those conditions and forces of a climatic character which tend to break up and destroy road surfaces.

Now here, it seems to us, is a plan which might very well be followed in this country by the founding of a national good roads laboratory, say at Washington, which might co-operate with similar but smaller institutions provided for and controlled by the various State legislatures. The cost of carrying on such institutions would represent but a moderate percentage of the money that is annually thrown away on the construction and so-called repair of highways by the present defective methods.

## NATIONAL STREET LIGHTING

THE proper lighting of a city is not so much a question of the amount of light as it is of its proper distribution. Because of the fact that America is the birthplace of modern electrical illumination, and the country in which it has been developed to its present scale, there is a popular impression that our municipal lighting is the best in the world, yet it is a truth that, because of the haphazard way in which we have distributed the light, the result of illumination, judged by its adaptability to the

needs of the user, is far less satisfactory than it might be, and, in the general run, is not so efficient as the lighting of European cities. This question was recently dealt with by Dr. Louis Bell in a paper read before the American Society of Municipal Engineers at its annual convention, and the principles which he laid down are at once so obviously sound and so frequently disregarded, that they are well worthy of careful study by the municipal authorities throughout the country.

The fundamental criticism against most attempts at street lighting lies, according to the author of the paper, not so much in the illuminants used as in the improper adjustment to the needs of the city. The fault particularly noticeable in American cities is the lack of careful discrimination between the streets which demand considerable light and those which are merely illuminated with a less quantity of light. Most schemes of lighting aim at an approximation to uniformity of illumination over the whole area of the city, whereas, the quantity and character should rather be determined by the particular character of the streets in which it is placed. The main thoroughfares, in which there is considerable night traffic, should receive an amount of lighting commensurate with their importance, but in streets where traffic is light, and where passers-by are few, it is sufficient to provide enough light to enable the people to get about comfortably in the dark. A class of streets, lying more remote and coming under the head of suburban roads, require yet another method of illumination. Since the fundamental purpose of lamps in the city, the little-end-of-the-road, is to serve as a marker of the way for very large units, widely spaced, is obviously in proper, a better way would be to employ small units located at shorter intervals.

The principal streets of American cities, according to Dr. Bell, as a rule are poorly lighted, the secondary streets are lighted sometimes better and sometimes worse than they should be, and the third class usually have one lamp in every long block which is useless, except within a comparatively short radius, for such purposes as finding the number of a house or reading the address in a book block. As a rule, the streets are not lighted in proportion to the principle should be followed that in the principal streets one should everywhere have enough light to read a paper by, which is the standard of illumination for the principal streets in the large cities of England and continental Europe.

Much of the faulty street lighting in the United States is chargeable to the method commonly employed in measuring street lighting, the so-called plan is to measure the light half way between the lamps with the photometer disk held normal to the ray, and, naturally, the tendency of competitors for the lighting contracts is to select the smallest minimum at as low a maximum as possible. Indeed, certain types of illuminants have been deliberately specialized for the purpose of giving two-hundredths or three-hundredths of a foot-candle at a distant point. Now, if these illuminants had been designed as they should have been, not to give a special form of illumination, but to give the best efficiency of which they were capable, it would be possible to make them light not only widely distant parts of the street, but the whole street. While it is not desirable to attain to uniformity with a low average of light, it is equally undesirable to require the light at certain points separated by long stretches of comparative darkness. Summing up, the important points to bear in mind are, first, that the streets are lighted for the people to use, and second, that the light should be lighted with reference to the particular use which is going to be made of them, and third, that, speaking generally, all the streets should be more brightly lighted than is customary in the United States today.

## A BATTLESHIP FLEET IN BAY OF OCEAN.

FOR many years our Navy Department has followed the policy of concentrating an unusually large percentage of the total displacement of our ships in battleships of the first class. Every nation is following the same policy, and has done so since the introduction of the first dreadnought in 1906. Many years before that date, however, the United States had practically ceased to build protected cruisers, and was concentrating its strength in vessels of the armored class, the majority of which were heavily-gunned battleships.

The change of this policy means that the fleet in a year or two time it will be possible to maintain two complete battleship fleets, each of four divisions of four ships, one in the Atlantic and one in the Pacific. The fleet of the Pacific would possess a certain number of dreadnoughts, and would, therefore, be individually much more powerful than the one which made the recent cruise around the world. Although the dreadnoughts were the main battle power of the fleet, it was the

dreadnought fleet which was the main battle power of the fleet, and it was the dreadnought fleet which was the main battle power of the fleet.

The plan which is now being considered by the Navy Department is to maintain a fleet of four divisions of four ships each, one in the Atlantic and one in the Pacific. The fleet of the Pacific would possess a certain number of dreadnoughts, and would, therefore, be individually much more powerful than the one which made the recent cruise around the world. Although the dreadnoughts were the main battle power of the fleet, it was the dreadnought fleet which was the main battle power of the fleet.

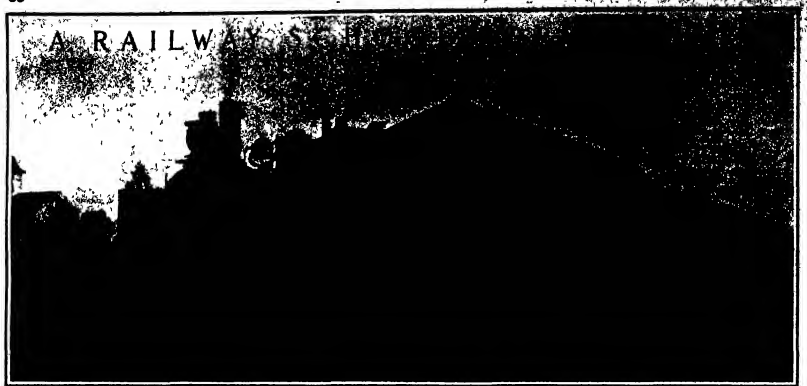
If the present plans are followed the battleship fleet in the year 1911 will be made up as follows: First Division, flagship "Connecticut," and the five dreadnoughts "Maine," "Massachusetts," "Minnesota," "Dakota," and "Michigan." Second Division, the dreadnought "South Carolina," and the sister ships "Louisiana," "Kansas," "Vermont," and "New Hampshire." Third Division, the sister ships "Mississippi" and "Idaho" (smaller "Connecticuts"), and the sister ships "Maine" and "Missouri." There will be a fifth division consisting of the four armored cruisers "Tennessee," "North Carolina," "Albatross," and "Montana." In the year 1912 we shall have sufficient battleships to provide for a fleet in active service, consisting of twenty-one battleships and a reserve fleet of five battleships. The first division of the active fleet will consist of five dreadnoughts, the second division, of two dreadnoughts and three "Connecticuts," the third division, of three "Connecticuts" and two "Idahos," the fourth division, of the five vessels of the "Georgia" class. The fifth division (armored cruisers) would consist of the four ships of the "Tennessee" and "North Carolina" class.

Our readers will recognize at once that in the above organization, ships of the same general type have been assembled in the same divisions. The largest vessels will dock at the New York and Norfolk yards, where the largest drydocks and the best facilities are to be found. The commander-in-chief and the auxiliary vessels of the fleet will make their home at the New York yard since that is the most central point for the purpose. The reserve fleet will be kept at Philadelphia, and the most effective deterrent to any hostile fleet will be maintained in commission at New York, Boston, and Norfolk.

By the year 1912, then, the United States Navy will contain thirty-one battleships, made up of four divisions, with four ships in each division, always ready for sea service and one at the yards for overhauling and refitting, and each division commander will have all the ships of his division within immediate reach throughout the whole of the year. At the same time, should the political situation be such as to render this desirable, as we have noted above, it will be possible to divide this force into two fleets, one for each coast, and to maintain the other in the greater fighting strength than the one that made the memorable cruise around the world.

W. R. Hunt says by dispatches received on the 19th May. Rountgen says that a polarimeter study and if independent of the position of the crystal to the target. The main inquiry is, within experimental error, in the plane, about the target, of course, the half-angle of the stream, and the intensity of the stream, on either side of the plane. The interpretation of the results of the study is, within experimental error, in the plane, about the target, of course, the half-angle of the stream, and the intensity of the stream, on either side of the plane. The interpretation of the results of the study is, within experimental error, in the plane, about the target, of course, the half-angle of the stream, and the intensity of the stream, on either side of the plane.





Demonstration train at a way station in California.

In response to an urgent request from leading dairy interests in Southern California, Prof. Leroy Anderson, head of the dairy department of the California College of Agriculture, has just made an examination of the milk conditions in that part of the State.

Prof. Anderson says that in consultation with the dairymen, it was decided to inaugurate a general policy of education upon the subject. In his opinion, the reform of many conditions now undesirable in the methods of producing milk, can better be reached through the commercial aspect of the business and through the education of the producer and the consumer than through drastic and radical legislation.

He says that he finds the conditions under which milk is produced about Los Angeles are not materially different from conditions in other populous centers, except that nature is possibly kinder in granting more sunshine and less rain and a more porous soil, all of which tend toward a water cleanliness.

What advice he has to offer, therefore, is applicable to all parts of California. He hopes especially that the man who is producing and selling directly to consumers in the smaller towns and cities, whether he has one cow or more, may receive an incentive to have better cows and keep them in a clean and a healthy condition.

In cities like Los Angeles and San Francisco, he says, where large wholesalers act as distributing agencies between the producer and the consumer and pasteurize all the milk, some of the dangers that might result from disease of the cow and uncleanliness are obviated.

"It does not have a pretty sound," continues the professor, "to say that lack of care on the part of the producers is partly the reason for the expensive pasteurization which the wholesalers now give to milk."

"Pasteurization, however, is one of the advance steps toward a healthier race, and some day this process will give way to such clean methods of producing milk that it will not be necessary. That is the goal toward which we are all striving."

"It costs money to produce clean milk, which cost must be met by a higher selling price or by more profitable cows, or both. The cow is especially in our mind just now, and we call the reader's attention to records taken from different sources to show by actual figures how cows vary in returns to their owners from similar outlay for food and care."

Prof. Anderson then refers to the subject of proper stables and corrals for dairy cows and says:

"The great thing to be desired in either, is that there should be easy means of keeping clean and then keep them clean. This is the chief reason for using concrete in stable floors. It does not decay and it can be scraped out easily, and it can be hosed down with water and swept

in a few moments, so that no dirt remains. Some dairymen object to cows standing on concrete, but in California, where the cows are in only for feeding and milking, they suffer no injury.

"Occasionally a very good stable is constructed where the cattle stand, which portion is made of plank. This works well from a sanitary point, if the planks are water-tight or are underlaid with a water-tight substance so that the soil under the planks cannot become saturated.

"A milking stable is absolutely essential to the production of clean milk. Milking in the corral is an abomination, either in winter or in summer. In winter, during the rainy season, it is not uncommon to see both cow and milker wading nearly to the knees in mud, when of necessity the milk must become the depository for some of the mud.

"In summer, when the corral dust may be from one to four inches deep, the condition is even worse. The dust is raised with any slight breeze or with every movement of man or beast, and even more dirt finds its way into the milk than during the time of rain and mud. Thus the cows must be provided with some stable which is dry and clean, and where they can be held for milking.

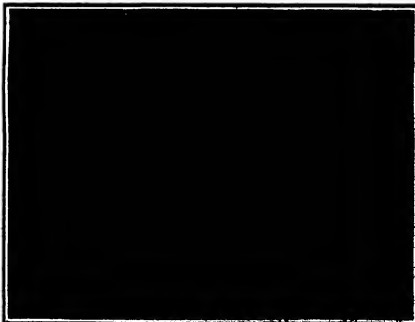
"The stable needs not be expensive. On the contrary, it may be very simple, and the less lumber in it the better so long as the frame is sufficiently strong. It should permit the entrance of an abundance of direct sunlight and have enough openings to give constant ventilation. Large louvers in the roof are excellent for ventilation and also admit light, but not direct sunrays."

Salol Lintment for Burns.—Salol, 10 parts; olive oil, 60 parts; lime water, 80 parts.

#### Bread Under the Microscope.

Bread, like milk, is one of the most general articles of food, and as such is subjected to the most frequent adulteration, and unfortunately it happens that such a fraud cannot always be detected with ease. The experts who have given special attention to this kind of adulteration agree in the statement that under the influence of the preparation of bread the grains of four undergo certain changes in their outer appearance that render them much less distinguishable. In a most praiseworthy article recently published in *Los Angeles de la Chimie Analytique*, Rupes Collin recounts the results of his tireless examination of pure bread and adulterated bread. In the course of his laudable endeavor, it seems, he found himself able to determine with possible exactness the quantity of pure flour in baked bread, whether the bread subjected to microscopical examination was old and hard or fresh. His procedure was to soften a crumb of bread with as little water as possible and knead it persistently with forefinger and thumb over a fine sieve resting on a vessel that should receive the dripping water. The mass was treated in this manner until the water comes to dark. A powdery mass then remains on the sieve, which is deposited on the crystal of a watch, combined with a trifle of glycerine, and is then set aside for further examination. Besides, to the water in the vessel is given an opportunity to clear itself, and it is then decanted so carefully that the sediment is not disturbed. The result of such treatment is that from the deposit on the sieve and that in the vessel the true composition of the bread can be ascertained.

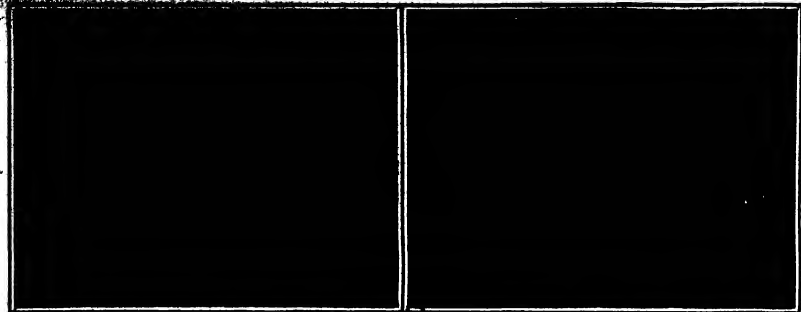
Bread made from pure flour leaves only an imperceptible quantity of starch on the sieve. On the other hand the greater part of the gluten is found on it and forms a web of irregular meshes and shows some resemblance to vegetable tissue. In consequence of the ease with which its presence in the bread is ascertained, the gluten is especially important for microscopical examination. In the same deposit the microscope showed numerous particles of starch, which during the preparation of the bread changed their ordinary form or were forced to explode. Still there is a rather considerable number of them that have escaped this influence and are easily recognized from their size, color, form, and the presence of the hovel. These statements regard wheat bread only. The result when rye bread passes under the same procedure is that the deposit on the sieve consists of gluten only, and therefore proportionate in a mixture of both kinds of flour can be ascertained with a high degree of exactness under the microscope. Particularly, however, in this case through a test of the percentage of flour, show the grains of starch of wheat and of rye are distinguished from one another. The shape of the starch granules is different in the two cases.



Lecture in agricultural and horticultural science.

A RAILWAY THROUGH THE TALKING





Duby exhibit, agricultural demonstration train.

Cereal exhibit, agricultural demonstration train.

## A RAILWAY SCHOOL FOR FARMERS.

placenta. The most resemblance to those is shown by the grains of barley, the addition of which is ac-  
tained with a satisfactory degree of certainty from the  
precipitate on the sieve. A quite customary adultera-  
tion of bread is effected with rice flour, which always

falls to escape the scrutiny of the microscope when  
this is invoked, for the grains of starch of rice are  
always left in great number on the sieve and are more  
easily recognized because during the preparation of  
bread they suffer less change. This result of M. Col-

lin's investigation is extraordinarily important, for the  
addition of rice flour to wheat flour or to rye flour has  
been to be a veritable torment. Besides, certain  
kinds of corn meal have been misused in the same  
way, though easily detected by the microscope.

## A REAPER BOAT

BY THE PARIS CORRESPONDENT OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

A French constructor, A. Amiot, has brought out  
a type of boat combined with a set of cutting blades,  
which is designed for use in cutting of aquatic growths  
in ponds or artificial lakes, mill races and various  
water courses. Such operations are often necessary  
where the bottom of a pond or water course becomes  
obstructed by the thick growth of aquatic plants, but  
where it is required to be carried out by hand labor  
it becomes a difficult and also an expensive matter,  
especially where a large area has to be dealt with.  
M. Amiot's device overcomes the difficulty by using  
an internal combustion motor mounted on a boat, and  
the motor serves to drive a set of cutting blades, which  
are designed somewhat after the fashion of reaper  
blades and adapted in their form so as to carry out  
the cutting of the plants under water in the best man-  
ner. The boat is rather narrow, and flat-bottomed,  
being much narrowed at the front and the rear. In  
the front is carried a paddle wheel, which is run by a  
gasoline motor, which  
drives the boat at a slow  
speed. Its total length is  
about 20 feet.

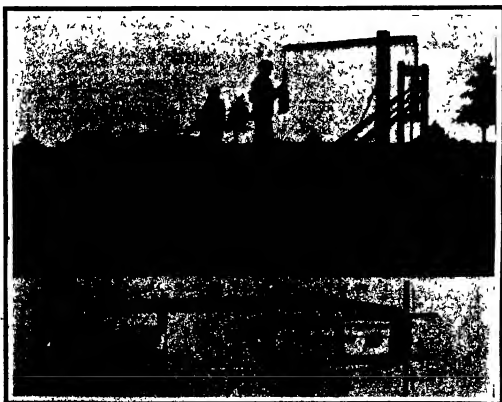
The cutting bars are  
mounted at the lower end  
of a vertical frame, which  
is held at the rear and of  
the boat, and these extend  
transversely across the  
bottom of the frame so as  
to lie at a point near the  
bottom of the water course  
or pond and to cut off the  
plants as the boat ad-  
vances. Such bars are  
made in different lengths  
and also at different cur-  
vatures so as to be adapted  
for flat bottoms or for beds  
of streams of different  
forms and sizes. The bars  
are usually from 6 to 12  
feet in length, and are de-  
signed to cut off a consid-  
erable area at a time. This  
gives the present system  
a great advantage in be-  
ing able to cover a large  
surface within a short  
time and at a compar-  
atively small cost. As will  
be observed in our accom-  
panying frame, which is  
made up of two vertical  
legs from which in the  
proper way, is suspended  
the set of the boat, and  
the cutting bars are

being swung upon the end of the lever, which is ob-  
served at the upper part, and this lever is pivoted in  
an upright. By means of the counterweight at the  
end of the lever, the entire frame can be raised and  
lowered, and this gives the adjustment of the cutting  
bars at any desired height in a convenient way. The  
gasoline motor is placed at the other end of the boat,  
and there is a belt transmission running to the rear  
end, which operates the pulley placed in the upper  
part of the cutting bar frame. This does not inter-  
fere with the raising or lowering of the frame, as will  
be noticed, seeing that the belt and pulleys can  
work at different angles. On the shaft of the pulley  
is a crank which drives a rod, and this rod passes  
down along the frame to the lower part, where it con-  
nects with a rack and pinion movement. By means of  
the alternate up and down movement of the rod, and  
the rack and pinion at the lower part the cutting  
blades are given the to and fro movement in the same

way as is seen in the usual blades, and in this way a  
wide swath is cut under water and at any desired  
height above the bottom. The paddle wheel is carried  
on a frame which is adjustable by means of bolts, so  
as to give the paddles any desired immersion, and the  
gasoline motor drives the wheel by gearing and chain  
drive, using two separate countershafts for this pur-  
pose so as to give the needed speed reduction. The  
gasoline motor is operated at the standard speed of  
500 revolutions per minute. When it is required to  
take the boat into shallow water or otherwise to pass  
over rocks or other obstacles, the cutting frame can  
be lifted entirely out of the water. In this case the  
cutting bars are folded up along each side of the frame  
so as to occupy but little space. In usual practice  
the cutting is carried out at the rate of 1½ miles an  
hour, and the cost of operating is estimated at \$0.25  
per mile, comprising gasoline, oil, labor, together with  
depreciation and maintenance. For cutting one acre  
area, the cost is figured at  
\$2.70.

The Amiot system is  
meeting with great suc-  
cess in Europe, and it is  
now in use on the artifi-  
cial lakes of the domain of  
the Institute of France, at  
Chantilly, and also on the  
domain of Lakem, be-  
longing to the King of Bel-  
gium. It is also used on  
a number of canals and  
rivers in France.

According to the Elec-  
trical Review and Western  
Electrician, the Park  
Building at Pittsburgh, Pa.,  
which is 15 stories high  
and contains 400 offices,  
was recently lighted by  
carbon filament lamps and  
had its interior decora-  
tions painted a deep sea-  
green color. It is now  
lighted by tungsten lamps,  
and has its interior paint-  
ed a light buff color. On  
replacing 3,810 carbon  
lamps (55-watt) by 750  
100-watt and 300 25-watt  
tungsten lamps, and 21-  
60-watt incandescent  
candle-power carbon lamps  
in the corridors and lifts  
by 5,400 watts in 40-watt  
incandescent tungsten lamps,  
248.4 kilowatts is saved.



The upper view shows reaper boat in operation. The lower picture is a plan view showing mechanism in working.

## A REAPER BOAT.

# Science

## THE ELEVATOR INSTALLATION OF THE METROPOLITAN LIFE TOWER.

BY HERBERT V. WARD.

In the newly-completed Metropolitan Life Insurance tower it is to be found an example of an installation which serves the purpose of lifting cars to an altitude greater than that attained in any building yet constructed. Judged independently of its height, the installation is a model of modern elevator engineering. Furthermore, it is significant of the successful development of a comparatively recent type of elevator machine which has been tested in actual use and found to answer the requirements of service as well as the requirements of mere height. Great as the lift is the designers claim that it is possible to go even higher and that elevators can be installed in any skyscraper which the ambitious architect may yet agree. As a result of this engineering achievement there is no difficulty in renting offices far above the city's noise and dust. No more time is consumed in reaching the 44th story of the Metropolitan tower than the 13th floor of older buildings.

For the Metropolitan Life tower, the type of elevator selected was the Otis traction overhead machine, in which the motor and driving sheaves are situated directly above the hoistway. High up in the apex of this white marble ramparts are to be found powerful electric motors, whose installation at this elevation taxed the ingenuity of the engineer and the electrician. They are without doubt the highest motors working in any building.

The problem of high rise in a tower building is one that can be solved in many different ways. A height of 400 feet marks the limits of the plunger and other hydraulic machines. In many forms of electrical elevators the weight of heavy moving cables or other parts, and the exact regulation of the car or land, are difficult if not impossible of attainment when certain heights are exceeded. In the Otis system illustrated we have a simple machine that has been found to work with the greatest reliability. A motor is mounted at the top of a shaft or hoistway. The armature shaft carries between its two bearings a driving sheave around which the six cables suspending the car are passed. The other end of the cables is to the car, the other to the counterweight, which moves up and down in guide rails at the side of the shaft, and is equivalent to the weight of the car and its average load. Directly beneath the motor is fitted an idler sheave around which the supporting cables are laid, so that it passes again around the driving sheave with which it is in contact for two half-turns. With this arrangement, the car or the motor, the armature rotates and moves the car up or down as desired. When the current is cut off powerful automatic shoe brakes are applied to hold the driving sheave. A compensating cable in other installations a chain connected with the bottom of the car, extends to the bottom of the shaft, passes around sheaves or pulleys, and then extends to the counterweight. Its object is to compensate for the weight of the supporting cables, whether the car is at the top or the bottom of the shaft. In other words, the system is very nearly in equilibrium, and the function of the motor is merely to move it with such additional load as is supplied by the passengers in the cars. When the Metropolitan installation was considered by a board of elevator engineers it was realized that this system was the only one that would meet the conditions demanded by an office building of extreme height. The thorough tests which the machine have received since their completion has justified the engineers in their selection.

The tower installation is a complete independent of the elevator systems serving other parts of the huge Metropolitan Building consists of six express elevators, which make no stops between the street and the 10th floor. The cars are 10 feet in diameter and of the tower in two banks or rows of three each, five of the six running from the 1st to the 41st floor, or a rise of 534 feet 11 1/2 inches. The middle car on the east bank runs from the basement to the 11th floor, while the middle car in the west bank runs from the basement to the highest landing in the tower on the 44th floor, a distance of 580 feet 1/2 inches. With a live load of 2,000 pounds per square foot, the cars can make a speed of 600 feet per minute without stops, which is the maximum permitted by the present New York Building Department regulations. Thus the journey to the top of the tower is made in less than a minute which is recognized as an additional time demanded by office building renting conditions. The actual consumption of time by the passenger does not place the tower building at any disadvantage over lower buildings, where slower speeds and frequent stops may require the same expenditure of time. In this connection it may be remarked that the traction machine illustrated, which is a complete step to full speed in from two to three minutes smoothly and evenly, so that the passenger experiences no unpleasant sensation.

Each elevator is equipped to travel up and down

daily a total distance of 54 to 56 miles. The work of the engineers naturally centers in the tower, where they have been installed, at the top of the tower, where the most essential elements of the installation are to be found, the tapering top of the tower above the heavy machinery.

Elevator installation was not a final feature of the construction of the tower, but a necessary part of it. As fast as the structural workers completed the framework, the rails for the cars were set in place, and a temporary elevator was rigged to send up the materials of construction. As the majority of the work for the elevators running to the 41st floor could be carried up by the high-rise elevator, their erection was not so difficult a matter. When it became necessary to raise the machine for elevators going up to the 44th story, a serious problem was presented. Eventually, the task was accomplished, and the huge castings and armature were sent up to a point where they could be set in place by an ordinary tackle. These machines weigh 11,000 pounds each in the case of four, and 23,000 pounds each for two elevators where devices are employed to enable extra heavy loads, such as safes, to be raised. The magnetic controller weighs 2,000 and 3,500 pounds respectively for the two classes of machines. It is here that the operation of the switches governing the motors comes, which switches are under the control of the car operator.

The motors are rated at 40 horse-power and use 115 volts direct current. They run at a speed of from 35 to 58 revolutions per minute, and the peripheral speed of the driving sheave is 2,500 feet per minute. The speed of the car? The limited space in a high tower presents problems quite different from those of a large building, such as that of the Hudson Terminal, where the traction machine can be arranged in orderly rank. In the tower one machine may have to be placed above the other, or at an angle perhaps, while the controllers and other auxiliary parts must be fitted in whatever place offers. Consequently, the machinery room of the tower has a bewildering appearance. Every inch of space is still used. Despite crowded quarters, there is the utmost order.

Around the driving sheaves pass the lifting and counterweight cables, six in number for each machine. They are 7/8 of an inch in diameter, and each cable has a breaking strength of 26,000 pounds. The length of the several cables for the various cars varies from 575 to 626 feet for the high-rise car. Another important cable is that passing through the car to the counterweight, which is a steel cable of 1/2 inch diameter. These are 1/2 inch cables, and they vary in length from 114 1/2 to 127 1/2 feet. Their function is to transmit the motion of the car to the centrifugal governor, which in case of excess speed will stop the car, but causes the safety device of the car to come into play and lock it firmly to the rails. The cars, which vary from 5 feet 4 inches by 6 feet 4 inches to 5 feet 4 inches by 4 feet 4 inches, weigh about 4,000 to 4,500 pounds. The counterweight is slightly heavier than the empty car, so that the car is assumed to carry an average load.

In the more recent Otis traction elevator, the clanking chain used to compensate the weight of hoisting and counterweight cables has been supplanted by a special flat wire rope, which is 3/4 inch wide and 1/2 of an inch thick, one end being attached to the bottom of the car and the other to the counterweight. This cable passes over flat flanged sheaves arranged in a channel-iron frame at the bottom of the shaft, which frame is carried in such a way that the cables are free to move up and down as the hoisting ropes stretch or contract. Two of these compensating cables are attached to each elevator, their length varying from 575 to 626 feet.

Safety to less than speed is provided for these express elevators. Thus the speed governor already referred to serves to actuate a wedge-clamp device so far, and to limit the speed electrically to 700 feet per minute. If a speed of 700 feet per minute is reached, the wedge-clamp safety device works at once, and the car is clamped to the rails. Furthermore, each car has an emergency brake which enables the operator to stop the car at any point, and the car is held independently of the speed governor. At the top of the shaft, safety retarding device checks the speed of either car, counterweight in case the other is stopped.

Both cars and counterweights land on padded oil buffers at the bottom of the shaft, which buffers are arranged so as to stop the car when running at full speed that is, over 700 feet per minute. These have been found to work by actual test, each effectively and satisfactorily.

The Sun Canal is quite a different story today from what it was when it was opened in 1880. Mr. Vincent Drury gives some interesting details of how the canal has been changed in which has improved

the canal, the dredging having been so carried out as to give the canal a depth of 10 feet, and the width of 100 feet, and the increased discharge, larger ships were again seen to be passing at intervals of 10 minutes, with each having an engine of 100 horsepower, and the canal was found to be at either end. At each gate the bottom width of the canal is 50 yards, the width at the water level being over 100 yards, while the depth of the gate itself is 21 feet. At the same time the depth of the channel was increased, so that on January 1st, 1905, a draft of 26 feet 8 inches was allowed instead of 25 feet 2 inches. On January 1st, 1906, the draft was again increased to 27 feet, and on January 1st, 1907, to 28 feet. The work of dredging the canal is steadily proceeding, with the intention of keeping it at a uniform depth throughout.

## An Ingenious Way of Examining the Contents of the Stomach.

The lay mind is apt to consider the advances made in surgery in the last decade of more importance than those in the modern medical practices. That this popular impression is erroneous is proved by the many deaths which have occurred in the last few years due to the work of a physician to examine the contents of the stomach, and to restore them to their normal condition without resorting to the surgeon's knife. Notable forward strides in this direction have been made in the study of the digestive system of the human body, and an examination of the stomach and its contents by the use of a bucket firmly held at the end of a fine cable and let down into the stomach, to fill and be hoisted up again for examination by chemical reaction tests, to determine whether the stomach digests normally or abnormally, and thus to enable the physician to diagnose correctly the defects or diseases of the digestive organs.

From the New York Medical Journal we learn that Dr. Max Blahorek, professor of medicine at the New York Post-Graduate Medical School, has succeeded in obtaining samples of the chyme contained in the duodenum and in the stomach, and in the stomach, called the "digestive juice aspirator," a portion of which instrument is introduced into the duodenum by way of the esophagus and stomach without the slightest discomfort to the patient.

It is well known that primary digestion takes place in the stomach, but the most important digestive action takes place in the duodenum that is, the part into which the stomach discharges its contents. The pylorus, and which also receives the very important secretions from the liver (bile) and the pancreas.

For the purpose mentioned, Dr. Blahorek uses a thin flexible tube terminating in a small metallic perforated capsule, which is swallowed by the patient and passes into the stomach, dragging the flexible tube along in its descent, the tube being sufficiently long to extend a distance out of the patient's mouth.

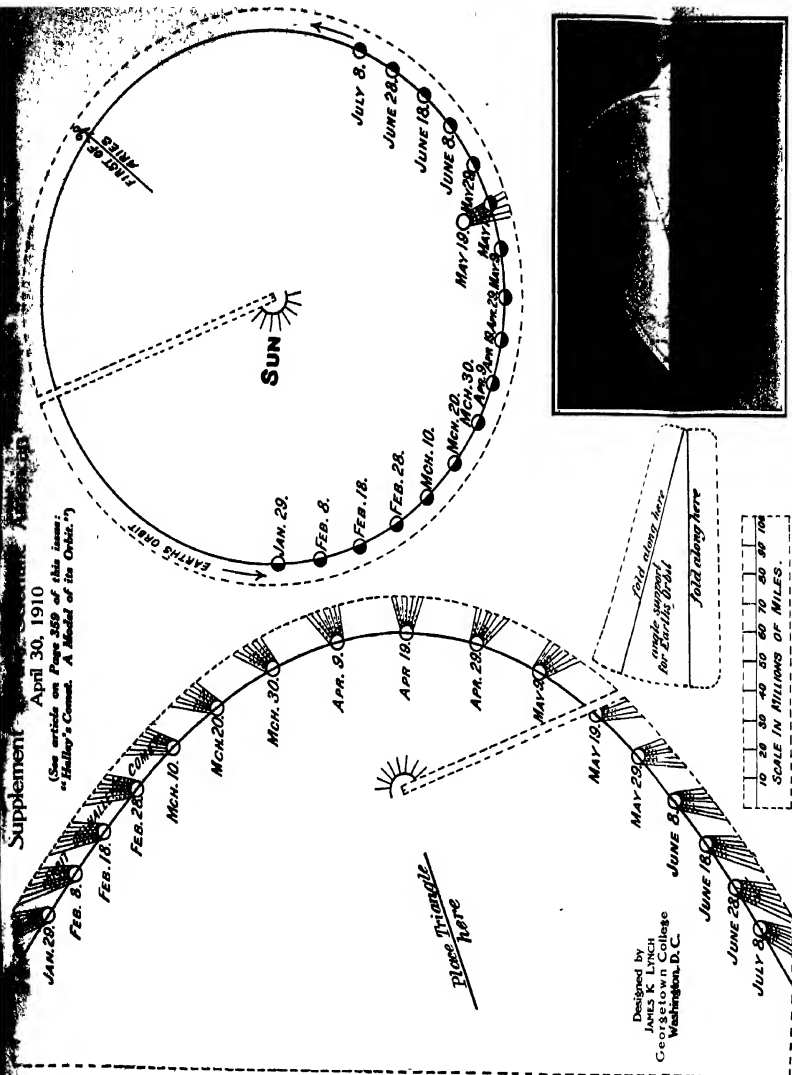
The capsule in the stomach is acted on by the movement of the stomach wall, as in the case of food. In the course of about an hour it passes by way of the pylorus into the duodenum, and even as far down as the beginning of the small intestine. The outer end of the tube is then connected with a small hand suction pump, the piston of which is gradually withdrawn to a distance of about 10 inches from the stomach, and the capsule and its contents are then drawn into the glass barrel of the pump, which latter is now disconnected from the tube and its contents emptied into a beaker for examination. The tube and the capsule attached thereto are then withdrawn.

The immense importance of being able to obtain the chyme directly from the duodenum, especially the lower part thereof, is apparent, as the physician by the subsequent tests made of the chyme obtained, can diagnose accurately and readily determine the proper or improper functioning of the duodenum. The same method, of course, also may be used in the stomach, to obtain samples of food and the gastric juice, the time period of stomach digestion, from beginning to end.

The successful use of the simple device described has led Dr. Blahorek to believe that the use of the introducing tube or medicine directly into the duodenum without first passing it into the stomach is an ordinary way of obtaining the food in the stomach. In this case, the tube is inserted into the stomach into the barrel of the pump and after the introduction of the perforated capsule into the duodenum, as above described, the pump is attached to the outer end of the tube, and the contents of the stomach are drawn into the glass barrel of the pump, which latter is now disconnected from the tube and its contents emptied into a beaker for examination. The tube and the capsule attached thereto are then withdrawn.

# Supplement April 30, 1910

(See article on Page 289 of this issue: "Halley's Comet. A Model of its Orbit.")



Designed by  
JAMES K. LYNCH  
Georgetown College  
Washington, D. C.

HOW TO MAKE A MODEL OF THE ORBIT OF HALLEY'S COMET, SHOWING ITS RELATIVE POSITION TO THE EARTH'S ORBIT

For a model of the orbit of Halley's Comet, showing its relative position to the Earth's orbit, use the following instructions. The model is made of cardboard and is 10 inches in diameter. The Sun is represented by a small circle at the center. The Earth's orbit is represented by a dashed circle. The comet's orbit is represented by a solid line. The dates are marked along the orbit. The scale bar at the bottom right indicates distances in millions of miles. The note "Place triangles here" with arrows pointing to specific points on the orbit. The small inset shows a photograph of the comet's nucleus and tail.





## THE MOTOR-BOAT RACES AT MONACO

BY THE PARIS CORRESPONDENT OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

The motor-boat races at Monaco and Monte Carlo this year were noteworthy on account of the extremely high speed which was attained according to the cable dispatches. There were a score or more of boats in the races which were favored with excellent weather

and a half astonished many of the spectators, and was an excellent testimonial to the design and construction of the Wolsley-Stiddeley motors that drove her. She was piloted by her owner who steered her with great steadiness. He took the turns with-

gress of scenery is obtained, and an experience has shown that in a long-distance race a boat will make less speed if anything, than in a short speed trial. It seems certain that the *Ureula*'s has not shown much more than 40 miles an hour so far. That she should



Three of the contestants making a turn in the "Championship of the Sea" race

that made possible the attainment of great speed as well as in the long-distance events. The first long-distance race for the Championship of the Sea was held on Sunday April 10th. Count de Pourtales, Lorient, readily won this 200-kilometer (124-mile) race in 4 hours 23 minutes 42.2 seconds at a speed of 28.31 miles per hour. Out of the 28 competitors in this long-distance race for cruises the *Tek Horn* (Chelyso), *Gregoire VIII* and *Spagal* finished in the order given.

It was an exciting one as several of the boats were quite evenly matched. The *Brasler Despujols* hydroplane, which was one of the novel craft that met this year did very well and showed good speed in proportion to its horse-power. In the second great international race for the Coupe des Nations which took place on April 12th this boat was second finishing but 7 minutes and 47 seconds behind the *Ureula* which completed the 100 kilometers (62.1 miles) in 1 hour 26 minutes 30.2 seconds. The *Brasler Despujols* averaged 30.1 miles an hour against 49.86 miles an hour of the *Ureula*. She was fitted with a *Brasler* 4-cylinder engine of 100 horse-power while the *Ureula* had two 12-cylinder motors totaling 800 horse-power. One of our photographs shows the twin screws of the *Ureula*. Her engines are arranged side by side one on each side of the hull. Another photograph shows the *Ureula* at full speed while in third place shows the *Brasler Despujols*. The difference in the amount of spray thrown by these two boats is interesting; the former cuts through the water with very little disturbance while the latter skims over it with a good deal of splashing. The great velocity with which the *Ureula* speeded around the course for nearly an hour

out slowing down and at each turn the boat would tip dangerously. The *Ureula* showed herself to be one of the fastest motor boats that have ever been built but in the mile and kilometer speed trials she did not make anything like the time that she is reported to have accomplished in the long distance races. In fact the hydroplane beat her in the speed trials owing to its ability to get under way quicker. The times of the mile from a standing start and of the flying kilometer trials by the *Brasler Despujols* and the *Ureula* were as follows:

	Mile	Kilometer	an hour
<i>Brasler Despujols</i>	2 20		30.71
<i>Brasler Despujols</i>		50 3-5 sec	44.85
<i>Ureula</i>	2 30-3-5		39.90
<i>Ureula</i>		55 3-5 sec	40.20

The *Ureula* this year is fitted with the same two 12-cylinder Wolsley-Stiddeley motors that were used last year. As her best speed this was about 57 miles per hour it is fair to assume that the figures given in the cable reports are not correct or else that the distances around the course were less than supposed. It is extremely doubtful if the Duke of Westminster's race averaged more than this figure in the long races especially since she made only 40.35 miles an hour in the flying kilometer speed trial. We understand that on account of the great depth of the water where the races are held there is often times a shifting of the booms owing to the inclining of the anchor line and that this causes a shortening of the course. The mile and kilometer tests are therefore the only ones in which any great de-

Stern of the "Ureula," showing rudder and twin screws.

have averaged 48 miles an hour with the same power plant as hitherto is very creditable.

## An Aeroplane Flight with Five Passengers, and Over Twenty Flying in France.

One of the most remarkable performances ever made with an aeroplane was that of Roger Sommer's new biplane last week in France when piloted by its constructor. It carried him and four other persons in a five-minute cross country flight. On this occasion the aeroplane lifted some 750 pounds of dead weight or probably a total weight of 1,800 pounds with presumably a 50-horse power motor.

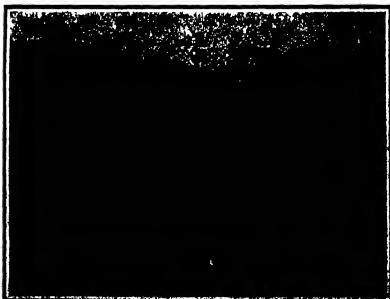
Another demonstration of the development of the heavier-than-air machine was given on April 12th by Louis Paulhan who flew from Orleans to Arc-en-Aube (118 miles) in 3 1/2 hours on his Farman biplane. The next day he flew 43 1/2 miles further across country in 1 hour and 10 minutes reaching a height of 150 feet. Henry Farman on the 17th instant also flew 60 miles across country with a passenger.

These brilliant flights form an excellent demonstration of the great advance recently made in dynamic flight and point the way to the practical utilization of the aeroplane for the transportation of individuals and of mail.

The Electrical World states that at a recent miners' convention in Indianapolis the opposition of mine workers to electric power the introduction of which they consider against their interests was manifested in a resolution declaring that the use of electricity in mines is hazardous as the leakage from poorly insulated wires has a tendency to ignite mine gases and frequently causes explosions.



The *Brasler Despujols* hydroplane at full speed.  
This boat made 44.86 miles an hour in the flying kilometer speed trial.



The Duke of Westminster's "*Ureula*" speeding in Monaco Bay.  
Detailed winning the 100-kilometer Coupe des Nations was 40.35 miles per hour in the flying kilometer speed trial.

## THE MANUFACTURE OF CELLULOID

BY JACQUES BOYER

More than sixty years ago chemists began the search for substances of which imitations of horn, tortoise shell, and ivory could be made. One of the first experimenters Dr. Pearson of New Orleans furnished a theoretical solution of the problem in 1846 by the discovery of celluloid, a complex substance consisting chiefly of nitrocellulose and camphor, but no industrial application of celluloid was made until a much later date.

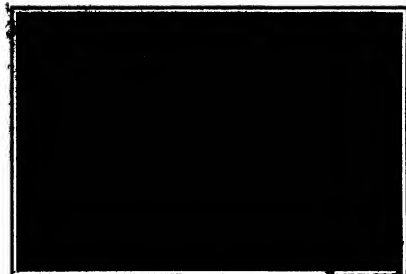
In 1862 Parkes of Birmingham obtained a similar substance which he named "parkesine" by mixing gunpowder with wood naphtha. The hardness of parkesine limited its applications and it was employed chiefly as an electrical insulator. In order to soften

it castor oil was added to the mixture and afterward the naphtha was replaced by methyl alcohol. Parkesine obtained a temporary success in England, but it was driven out of the market by the cheaper celluloid the manufacture of which was begun by the Hyatt brothers in Newark, New Jersey, in 1867. Other large celluloid factories were subsequently established in America, France, England, and Germany.

Celluloid is now made from a very pure form of cellulose usually obtained from cotton or unbleached filter paper. The cellulose is converted into nitrocellulose by methods which vary somewhat in different factories. Among the processes most commonly used is the following: The material—raw or spun cotton or

paper chopped or cut into strips—is immersed in nitric acid for a period ranging from fifteen minutes to two hours according to the character of the fibre and the temperature of the bath. The cotton or paper now converted into nitrocellulose is taken out wrung and pressed to remove most of the adhering liquid which may or may not be returned to the nitrating bath. In either case the strength of the bath is restored to its original value by the addition of concentrated nitric acid.

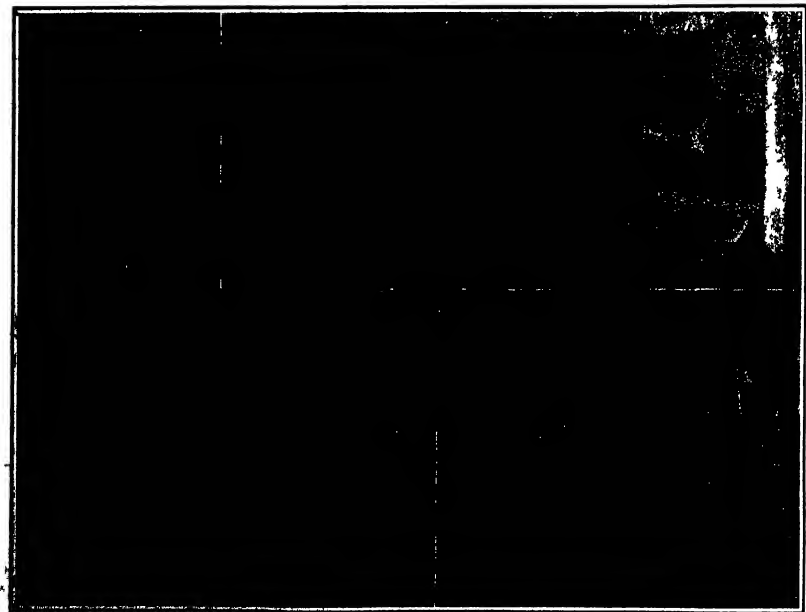
The nitrocellulose is washed in water and ground in a paper mill in which a rotary movement is impressed upon the mass as it is forced between a pair of two cylinders which rotate at a speed of 160 revolutions



Bending celluloid hatpin.



Blowing celluloid dolls.



Bending pieces of celluloid.

Rolling sheets of celluloid.

Cutting out celluloid rods.

Slicing sheets of celluloid.

per minute. The cylinders are set with steel blades, parallel to the axis, and the plate bears a number of steel blades, slightly inclined to those of the cylinder. The finely ground nitrocellulose next goes to the blancher, where it is treated with chlorine, hydrogen dioxide, sulphurous acid, potassium permanganate and other decolorizing agents. It is then washed thoroughly, pressed between rollers, and dried.

Celluloid is made by dissolving cellulose in an alcoholic solution of camphor. Some manufacturers mix the camphor with the molst product of the roller press which contains 40 per cent of water, while others add the camphor to the dried nitrocellulose in the *press* (see the molst pulp, camphor and coloring matter are ground together between horizontal, circularly fluted iron "millstones"). The mixture is passed several times through this mill, and is then dried. When the nitrocellulose is dried separately the lumps formed in the passage through the roller press are crushed by rubbing the pulp, with the hand through a coarse wire screen.

Drying is effected indirectly by pressing the pulp between layers of absorbent material. The pulp is spread on a cloth which is turned up over it, forming a V-shaped cake 24 inches long, 20 inches wide, and about 1/2 inch thick. In the factory of the Société Industrielle du Celluloid these cakes are piled alternately with dry felt, a sheet of iron being introduced after each ten or fifteen cakes. The felt is used to facilitate handling. The pile is then subjected to a hydraulic pressure of about 250 tons. After a few minutes of this violent compression, the new wet felt is replaced by dry felt and the operation is repeated until the nitrocellulose is dry. The compressed cakes are now unwrapped and broken into fragments for solution. If the camphor has been added before drying the broken cakes are simply sprinkled with alcohol, but if the dried nitrocellulose contains no camphor it is moistened with a solution of 50 parts by weight of camphor in 100 parts of alcohol.

The solvent is allowed to act for 24 hours and then the mass is rolled between hollow iron cylinders, from 12 to 26 inches in diameter, which make 10 revolutions per minute, and are cooled or heated, as desired by a circulation of cold water or steam in their interior. From 65 to 150 pounds of celluloid are rolled at a time the rolling being continued for half an hour to several hours. Toward the end of the operation the cylinders are brought close together in order to produce a thin sheet of celluloid longer and wider than the press by which the sheets are compressed into blocks. The rolled sheets are trimmed to the exact dimensions of the press, and the trimmings go back to the rolling mill.

In the Champeillon block press a strong iron box 54 inches long, 26 inches wide and 12 inches high is filled with sheets of celluloid and these are converted into a single block by pressing between two iron plates. The top plate is fixed in position, while the bottom plate is carried by a plunger which enters a cylinder below and is forced upward by hydraulic pressure. A pressure of 250 tons is applied for a period varying from 5 to 12 hours, during which the celluloid is kept at temperature of 150° to 154° deg. F. by a circulation of hot water in the interior of the box and the double walls of the box. The mass is cooled by substituting cold for hot water in the circulation during the cooling. The top plate is then removed and the block of celluloid is forced out of the top of the box by means of a plunger pressing from below.

The blocks are cut into rods of varying length according to the purpose for which the celluloid is to be used. The rods are cut by a machine in which a knife, the edge of which is inclined 45 degrees to the horizontal, is forced down into the block. In this way bands varying in thickness from 1/200 inch to 1/4 inch can be obtained. Celluloid is cut into rods or sheets by a machine in which the cutting tool is the form of a short cylinder of 1/2 inch diameter varying according to the size of rod desired.

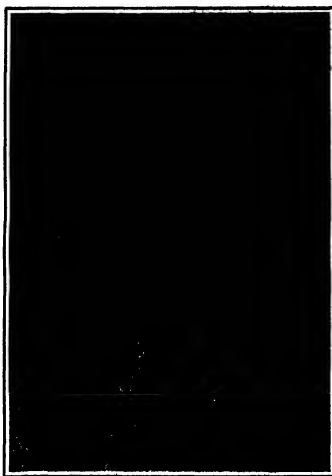
The celluloid, after it is cut up is dried in chambers where the temperature is never allowed to exceed 111° deg. F. as an excess of dryness of operation. The time required for desiccation varies greatly with the thickness of the bands or rods. Bands thinner than 1/100 inch dry in a few hours while strips thick enough to be made into knife handles, for example, must remain in the drying chamber about six months.

Thin sheets of celluloid are made directly from the rolled sheets in an apparatus which comprises two vertical cylinders, with their axes in the same line and their pistons connected by a steel rod. The bottom of the

lower cylinder has a central orifice in which various apertures of various diameters can be adjusted, and the lower part of the cylinder is heated by a circulation of hot water. The celluloid is introduced into this cylinder and hydraulic pressure is applied by means of the cylinder above. The celluloid, softened by the heat, is thus forced through the aperture in the form of a tube, which the operator draws away and cuts into convenient lengths by means of a stamp attached to a cord passing over reversible pulleys.

To return to the bands of celluloid which have been cut from the pressed blocks. In the drying chambers these bands become warped. They are flattened in a hydraulic polishing press which exerts a pressure of about 1,000 tons. The celluloid bands are piled alternately with sheets of polished brass or nickel-plated steel, a thin plate of cast iron covered with cloth or felt being inserted after each four or five bands. These iron plates contain channels for the circulation of steam or cold water. While the pressure is applied the plates are first heated by steam to 180° or 190° deg. F. for a few minutes and are then cooled by cold water. When the bands are taken from the press they are found to have acquired the high polish of the sheets of metal which were in contact with them.

Before describing the subsequent treatment of the bands rods and tubes of celluloid, the method of producing striped, veined, and marbled sheets should



Flattening celluloid bands that have warped in drying.

#### THE MANUFACTURE OF CELLULOID.

be noted. For this purpose two blocks of celluloid of different colors are made separately in the block press and cut into bands about 1/100 inch thick. A pile of these bands, arranged in alternating colors, is placed with a powerful paper knife. The fine stripes of celluloid of two colors resulting from this operation are arranged regularly or irregularly in the block press and converted into a solid block of striped, veined, marbled or "watered" appearance.

From the bands, rods and tubes of plain and variegated celluloid, objects of every form and character, presenting the appearance of ivory, tortoise shell, mahogany and other woods, coral, amber, glass, marble, etc., are made by various operations, of which the most important are shaping, cutting out molding, carving, blowing, varnishing and decorating.

Celluloid, like wood, horn and ivory, is usually shaped by hand, with the chisel, drying tools, rasp, etc. Celluloid hair pins are pointed on the emery wheel. Shaping is done also on the lathe in the factory of the Société Industrielle du Celluloid. The cutting out is done principally by means of a planer, circular and hand saws, and cutting wheels with straight and curved edges. A wheel of special form is employed to cut out pairs of teeth for saws. The pieces are finished on lathe and grinding and other machines. Fine sheets with various patterns are put out with

the use of a special machine. The sheets are then cut into strips and are used for making celluloid tubes. Celluloid tubes are made by drawing the celluloid through a die. The die is heated by hot water, heat by hand on a small fire and heat by hand by being heated in oil and water. The tubes must be prepared with still and care, in order to avoid bubbles and cracks when heated to the strength.

Celluloid objects of the utmost variety of form are produced by the use of the lathe. In which operation the softening of heat is of great importance. The objects, especially those of a circular form, are turned on a lathe, the lathe being mostly shaped by other methods, is inserted between the two segments of a brass mold, which are in contact with the heated plates of a steam press. When the celluloid has become sufficiently plastic, the plates are forced together, and the celluloid assumes the exact form of the mold, which it retains after cooling. Lathe, plates of ivory, and similar small thin objects of celluloid are shaped by stamping with dies.

The operation of blowing is performed on celluloid tubes as they are drawn from the press. A tube of suitable dimensions is placed in a heated mold composed of two or more segments and, when soft, is inflated by a blast of high pressure steam which forces the celluloid into contact with every part of the mold, which is cooled by water. The tubes are then cut by a knife which brown covers and similar cup-shaped objects, as well as dolls, animal figures and other toys are made. The parts of celluloid bands and other small objects are sometimes joined by means of acetone, water and other solvents of celluloid. Cheap boxes are varnished with a solution of celluloid in acetic acid, which serves polishing with pumice stone.

For decorating the surface of celluloid, nitrates colors dissolved in alcohol are employed.

#### Air Resistance Experiments.

A useful critical comparison of the work of Frank and Biffel is presented by W. Schule in the Zeitschrift des Vereines Deutscher Ing. The law that resistance is proportional to the square of the velocity has been verified by Biffel in his experiments on a 3 m/sec., and by Schule from 15 to 40 m/sec. The specific resistance is proportional to the normal area, and this relation the two authors find to hold for an area of 1 sq. m. (Biffel). The results of Frank for right circular cylinders and cones of various angles are in contradiction to those of Biffel. The resistance is considered to be on the sides of Biffel, and further, the resistance deduced by the latter from his experiments with inclined plates requires substantial correction. The resistance of an inclined plate increases very quickly with the inclination of the plate up to 90 deg., and much more slowly thereafter. Frank's coefficient for the surface friction of plates moving parallel to their length, viz., 0.0054, shows that the resistance of such a plate is 208 times less than that for the same plate moving along the normal. This coefficient agrees well with the resistance coefficient of vapors and gases in motion through tubes. In the vapors from 10 deg. to 90 deg. plate inclination, the surface friction of plates influences on the specific resistance. Applying Frank's law of friction along with Biffel's results for plates inclined at 90 deg. to 20 deg., the specific resistance may be found for the region of most importance in flying technique, viz., between 0 deg. and 10 deg., at 5 deg. inclination, the resistance  $R$ , referred to the unit of surface, projection, changes through a minimum value (in units of  $10^{-4}$  dyn. per sq. cm.)  $x \times \sin \alpha \times \text{air density} \times \text{velocity}^2 / 2$ . Also, the resistance is composed of three parts: the acceleration resistance, the friction, internal and external, and the resistance due to the surface friction of plates moving parallel to their length, viz., 0.0054, and the resistance due to the surface friction of plates moving parallel to their length, viz., 0.0054, and the resistance due to the surface friction of plates moving parallel to their length, viz., 0.0054.

Celluloid which appears to be of the same composition as that used by Frank and Biffel, was examined and was found to be of the same composition. The results of the experiments are given in the following table. The higher grades of celluloid are of the same composition. Of the low grades of celluloid, the results are given in the following table. The results of the experiments are given in the following table.



# The Home Laboratory

DISCOVERIES MADE AND HOW TO TEST THEM.  
BY JOHN A. HALL, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

The arrival of Hally's comet and the interesting changes in the appearance noticed by the keen-eyed astronomer using a powerful telescope have naturally caused the public to inquire into the use of such glasses, and to wonder how much their eyes could see if a telescope were put at their disposal. Certain



Fig. 1.—FOCUS OF A LENS.

it is that the first look through a large telescope would be disappointing, for nothing appears so big or so magnified as expected. The beginner is apt to be aware that he could see the whole moon at once and see only a few miles away, but is amazed to find he can see only a small portion of it and that shimmering and dancing in a purple haze. He may admire the beauty of the color not knowing that this is caused by an imperfection of the telescope which cannot, unfortunately, be got rid of. Indeed, the moon presents a prettier picture in a three- or four-inch telescope than it does in anything bigger. It is in the hope of explaining the simple things about a telescope that this article is written.

It is sometimes thought that a telescope is powerful because the rays of light pass through a large number of lenses placed at intervals down the tube. This idea, like many another popular one, is entirely erroneous. The telescope gives a power mainly from the objective which causes the rays of light coming from the object under observation to converge, and if not intercepted form an image.

The action of a simple lens is easily understood. If parallel rays of light fall on the lens in the same direction as the axis of the lens they will (Fig. 1) converge to a point *F*, called the principal focus, and similarly, rays from *F* will emerge as a parallel beam. *F* may be on either side of the lens, and it is immaterial in which direction the light goes through.

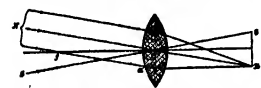


Fig. 2.—FORMATION OF AN INVERTED IMAGE.

terial in which direction the light goes through. The distance from *F* to the lens is the focal length. Next, if we have a parallel beam not in the direction of the axis (Fig. 2), it will likewise converge to a point, different from *F*. If we neglect the thickness of the lens, a ray through the center of the lens *C* will pass through undeviated, a ray *f* through *f* the focus will converge parallel to the axis. Rays from the top of the moon, *R*, will be brought to a focus at *f*, and from the south edge of the moon, *S*, to the point *s*. Hence the lens forms a real image at the focus, so that if we placed there a ground-glass or a photographic plate we would obtain a picture of the moon. This image is inverted.

Three different ways of using the convergent pencil of rays from the object glass give three different kinds of telescopes. If the rays before they enter from the full open a double convex lens we have the Galilean telescope, a principle which exists in the modern opera glass. This gives an erect image. If the image at the focus is combined with a double convex lens, a "negative lens," we have the astronomical telescope, first patented by Kepler. This gives an inverted image. If the image is combined by three double convex lenses, a compound microscope which again inverts the image, their result is the terrestrial telescope, and objects are seen erect.

In the ordinary reflecting Galilean telescope two kinds of mirrors are used, frequently being over one another. The lens and one made with a focal length of one foot. The other objective had a focal length of 10 feet. The object of the telescope was to show that if they attempted to increase the size of the telescope, it was necessary to still have increase the size of the telescope. The

rays are parallel rays falling on the middle of a simple lens are brought to a focus at a different point from those falling on the edge of the lens, as is shown in Fig. 3. The distance from *F* to *G* gives the amount of the "chromatic aberration." Even more trouble was caused by the "spherical aberration," the



Fig. 3.—SPHERICAL ABERRATION.

star images had a great amount of color surrounding them. A lens may be regarded as a round prism since a prism not only deviates light but breaks it up into the spectrum colors, a simple lens will act as is shown in Fig. 4, the violet light is most refracted and is brought to a focus at *R*, the less refrangible red comes to a focus at *S*, with rays of the other colors in between these two extremes. The result of all this is that if we focus for the yellow, the red and violet form rings around this and a star image is surrounded with a considerable amount of color. Sir Isaac Newton was the first to explain these aberrations, and it is singular that although he made experiments to prove that glass and water refracted light differently, he did not foresee Dolland's discovery (180 years ago) of making an objective from a combination of two lenses, one a double convex lens of crown glass, the other a double concave lens of flint glass.

With such a combination the optician has four surfaces to figure, and as a result it is possible to almost entirely eliminate the spherical aberration, or in other words make a flat field. But on the other hand it is still impossible to get entirely rid of color. Flint

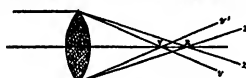


Fig. 4.—CHROMATIC ABERRATION.

and crown glass do not disperse light alike, the first relatively yellowish out the violet and the more. The optician with glass of two different sorts at his disposal can bring two colors of the spectrum to a sharp focus. For a visual telescope the rays generally taken are the yellow and the blue green. Consequently both the red and the violet ends of the spectrum are not in sharp focus, and these form rings about the stellar image which combine to make purple color. In small telescopes this color is not so pronounced, but with large telescopes of 14 inches or more aperture the color is conspicuous and cannot be got rid of. This is known as the "secondary spectrum."

The problem of making a good visual lens is really a much simpler one than that of making a good photographic one. In the first place, in the ordinary telescope for visual purposes, the field is comparatively small, of only a few minutes of arc, and the process of making a field flat over the area is simple compared with that required in an instrument like the Bruce photographic telescope of the Yerkes Observatory, which photographs an area in the sky 16 deg square. With reflecting telescopes the ratio of the aperture to focal length is about in the ratio of 1:15. The Yerkes 40-inch has a focal length of about 760 inches, a ratio of nearly 1:19. In a photographic telescope,

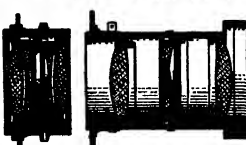


Fig. 5.—COMBINATIONS OF LENSES FOR RAPID PHOTOGRAPHIC WORK.

for the portrayal of a comet, for instance, as short exposures as possible are desired, and this calls for as great a ratio of aperture to focal length as possible. The ordinary amateur's camera works very well at a ratio of aperture to focal length of 1:11. If the lens is ground to 1:11 the photograph is just as sharp. Only lenses of the best makes can be used at 1:8. (Fig. 6.) Everyone who is familiar with the use of a camera knows how much sharper a picture is obtained by stopping down the lens. To obtain a net

field from a lens with an aperture of 1:5 is impossible with only two lenses; three or more are necessary. Using glass of different indices of refraction which is possible from the fine qualities of Jena glass now procurable, separating the lenses properly and grinding their surfaces to the right curves, it is possible to obtain a flat field with an absence of color and astigmatism. (Fig. 6.) The Bruce photographic telescope has an aperture of 10 inches with focus 10 inches. It is a close combination, technically known as a "doublet."

Every skillful amateur knows how to test a photographic lens. This is perhaps done as well as any other way by the test cards for astigmatism, to see

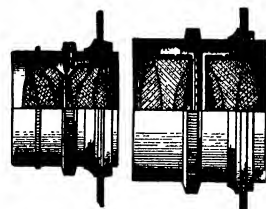


Fig. 6.—COMBINATIONS OF LENSES FOR FLAT FIELD AND ABSENCE OF COLOR.

If straight lines which intersect at right angles become lines or blurred images at the edge of the field. Still a lens might answer all the requirements for ordinary camera work but be a poor astronomical lens. A camera might cut clear in the edge of the plate on ordinary work, but when a three- or four-hour exposure is given on stars all imperfections will show up. Unfortunately, for obtaining astronomical photographs a telescope mounting with a good driving clock is indispensable—which is usually out of the reach of most amateurs.

On the other hand there is a number of small visual telescopes in the hands of amateurs, and a few words might be said in regard to testing them. This is best done on a moderately bright star. Focus carefully on it. Push the eyepiece in slowly and note the change in appearance. If the spot of light does not remain circular, the objective is not "squared on" properly, or the objective may be pinched in its cell. This must be adjusted before anything more is done. Now pushing the eyepiece in, the colors should



Fig. 7.—WORK OF A RECTILINEAR LENS COMPARED WITH AN ASTIGMATISM BLURRING DUE TO ASTIGMATISM IN RECTILINEAR LENS.

change gradually and symmetrically as the disk of light enlarges. The same should hold true by pulling the eyepiece outside the focus. If the telescope behaves well from this test, turn in a double star like Castor. As the amateur becomes familiar with the heavens, he will soon learn test objects for his telescope, and if he possesses a good instrument there is no keener pleasure than trying it night after night and becoming familiar with the beauties of the heavens.

## POWDER PLATING OF METALS.

Before a meeting of the Royal Society of Arts, in London last January, a paper was read on an improved method of electroplating. It described the process of plating metals by rubbing them with a moistened powder, and a number of articles were plated with gold silver and zinc before the society. The new plating powders are not to be confused with plating preparations which have been in use heretofore and which act merely to exchange the surface metal of the article to be plated with a thin film of deposited metal. In the new process a truly electrolytic action takes place which results in the deposit of metal without taking away the surface metal from the object to be coated. Furthermore the deposit may be made as thick as desired by continued applications of the powder. The inventor of this plating powder began his experiments a number of years ago with a view to developing a process by which knives forks spoons and the like can be plated as readily as they can be cleaned with polishing powder, and he succeeded in devising a method by which almost any

metal and even certain alloys such as brass in various proportions of copper and zinc can be applied to metal objects. So far the new powders are not on the market in this country but in England they are sold in small cans for a shilling each and one can is sufficient to plate the finished portions of a bicycle or to plate a quantity of household silverware.

The powders are composed of (1) of the metal to be deposited in its electrolytic state (2) of a salt preferably a salt of ammonium and (3) of a powdered metal which must be electrically opposite to the metal which is to be deposited. Magnesium is the most electro-positive metal with it is commercially practical to use and in most of the preparations for this a five to ten percent in some of the preparations aluminum and zinc are used. The following formula gives the size plating powder.

Zinc	1 part by weight
Ammonium sulphate	5 parts by weight
Magnesium	1 part by weight
Chalk	10 parts by weight
Sesquioxide	25 parts by weight

Ordinary commercial zinc dust even though it is not perfectly pure may be used. This same formula may be used for all other metals. If silver be substituted for the zinc in this formula a very heavy deposit will be obtained which will have the white frosted appearance of silver electrode plating before burnishing. If gold is substituted for the zinc the deposit will be a light yellow but various shades down to a rich red have been obtained by varying the formula. The article which is to be plated with the powder does not have to be cleaned before the powder is applied for the powder itself acts as a cleaning powder and liberates the oxygen of an oxidized surface. The amateur who wishes to experiment with these powders should bear in mind that they have been patented abroad and that patents are pending in this country.

#### MAKING MILK ARTIFICIALLY

BY J. S. JARVIS

We have heard so much about the synthetic production of perfume, syrups, dyes and what not from coal tar products that we are not easily surprised by the information that milk may be artificially made. The method described below however is not a chemical one but consists merely in the mechanical action of distilled water with crushed and finely ground sweet almonds. Practically the only difference between cow's milk and that made of almonds is that cow's milk contains animal casein while the artificial milk contains vegetable casein. The latter will produce a good supply of cream and if allowed to stand some time will become sour. It may also be coagulated by the addition of vinegar or lemon juice. When combined with grape sugar it is capable of generating some extraordinary organic substances. The artificial milk may be used with tea and coffee in the same way that cow's milk is used.

To make the milk procure half a pound of sweet almonds—the Valencia which is cheaper than the Jordan almonds will give just as good results. The skin of the almonds may be removed by scalding the nuts in boiling water and peeling them with a sharp knife. The almonds should then be placed in a wooden chop-stick bowl and chopped as finely as possible. Take about two ounces of the chopped almonds and place them in a mortar with a small quantity of distilled

water and grind or trundle the almonds in a mortar until they are reduced to a fine powder. The powder should be taken to prevent any of the larger almond particles from being forced through the meshes of the cloth.

If some of the milk thus produced is set aside for three or four hours a thick layer of cream will be found on the surface. If too much water has been used in forming the milk it may be necessary to add a little sugar of milk to sweeten it. The artificial milk has a slight almond flavor when taken cold but this is practically lost when it is used with tea or coffee. The color of the cream produced is white and may be improved by using some of the almonds without the skins removed in the proportion of two ounces of whole almonds to six ounces of the blanched almonds. Care must be taken to prevent any bitter almonds finding their way into the mixture but one or two bitter almonds to half a pound would not affect the flavor of the milk. Half a pound of almonds will make three pints of milk.

#### HOW AN EXTRAORDINARY BENEFIT

BY J. S. JARVIS

Put in any common heavy stone such as granite or compact limestone. Lay it at the bottom of a vessel filled with a fluid transparent liquid. Common sense tells you that the stone will stay there. Modern



A COMMON HEAVY STONE FLOATING IN A GLASS OF WATER

chemistry tells us that if the liquid has been selected for such a purpose the stone will spring up to the surface as if it had been forced into mercury instead of being immersed in what seems to be water.

Liquids which are denser than glass marble or common stones are not numerous. Leaving aside the metals mercury and gallium and the metalloids phosphorus and arsenic, the most interesting of such liquids are the aqueous solutions of the tungstoborates. Their density reaches 3.5 (saturated solution of sodium tungstoborate). An idea of the meaning of such a number can be gathered from the fact that a man with his shoes weighted so as to lower his center of gravity could stand erect in such a solution with more than half of his body out of it. The chemist Klein who studied the tungstoborates proposed to use them for

the purpose of making a liquid which would be denser than water and would be transparent and colorless. Such a liquid would be of great use in the study of the properties of the elements and in the study of the properties of the compounds of the elements.

Sodium is the cheapest of the extremely light metals, but it is not the lightest. Lithium, a beautiful metal of rose color, is the lightest of all. It is very soft and can be cut with a sharp knife. It is very reactive and will burn in air. It is very soluble in water and will decompose it.

Such extreme differences in density are not found among liquids yet organic chemistry gives us two colorless transparent liquids which so differ that a vessel filled with the lighter of them any hydride or pentane and easily carried by one man, could not be lifted by four men when filled with bromoform. The density of pentane is 0.6 that of bromoform 2.9. Such liquids are apparently more fluid than water and it is always amusing to watch the countenance of the unaware person who is requested to remove a glass full of bromoform from one place to another. Bromoform is sometimes prescribed by physicians against whooping cough. It is found at every drug store and costs but \$1.50 a pound.

But it is not the least of the greatest differences in density occur. Iodoform vapor which causes the intense stench of that well-known antiseptic is 197 times heavier than hydrogen. When an iodoform is vaporized in a porcelain dish placed over an alcohol or gas lamp it is partially decomposed. Iodoform vapor is not free and remains mixed with iodoform vapor. As iodoform vapor is half one of the heaviest of gases the experiment remains very beautiful. If the air is quiet a lateral jerk given to the dish causes the layer of violet gas to oscillate heavily just as a liquid would do in similar circumstances.

#### A SMALL ELECTRIC FURNACE

BY J. S. JARVIS

The accompanying cut shows the cross section of a small electric furnace made from a description of the Melsan furnace. In this one the brick and silica bricks are replaced by a block of limestone about 5 x 5 x 8 inches. In the top face of the base is a cavity about 1 x 1 x 1 inches and two longitudinal grooves to receive the carbon electrodes.

The cover is a similar stone with a cavity beneath its lower face. Both base and cover should be bound with a piece of sheet iron or tin to keep the pieces in place should the heat be great enough to crack the stones. The carbons are regulated by means of the vertical lever hinged at the base and attached to the carbon by means of a clamp. This clamp is attached to the lever at one place only. This allows



A SMALL ELECTRIC FURNACE

sufficient horizontal movement. The electrodes are connected to a battery circuit (alternating current 215 volts) by means of clamps. These clamps and other metal work are made from sheet aluminum—may be cut and easy to shape. The bolts used are short stove bolts.

In such a contrivance calcium carbide calcium phosphate phosphorus brass and alloys are easily prepared.

Calcium carbide requires intense heat, the cavity should be small. The carbide may be powdered or light carbon is best to use.

Calcium phosphide is prepared by heating calcium oxide carbon and red phosphorus. The phosphorus is placed in the small cavity in the base. The phosphorus is separated and burns at the top. It sometimes sublimates on the faces of the stones and burns into flame when the cover is lifted. The glass the day regular in the furnace. This is a satisfactory test. Pieces of porcelain are easily melted when pushed into this plastic mass.

Brass is easily made by heating zinc and copper. The zinc is placed in the small cavity in the base of the stone cover. The copper of an old tin will serve a good purpose for the copper. The zinc is placed in the small cavity in the base of the stone cover.



Chopping the almonds.



Grinding the almonds in water.



Filtering the almond milk.

water. Then grind or trundle the chopped almonds adding water occasionally until about twelve ounces of water have been used. The longer the grinding is continued the thicker will the milk be. Now take a piece of dry cloth about 12 inches wide by 24 inches long and rise it in clean water and after wringing it as dry as possible fold it double over the top of a pitcher and pour the contents of the mortar through the cloth into the pitcher. The milk

the settling of ore and other minerals as in most cases sorting or previous stones only will go to the bottom of their solutions. Their price however (the saturated solution of sodium tungstoborate is sold at two cents a gram) will be some time to come preclude such an application.

Solid aluminum remains on the surface of such liquids. To use a metal heating over a watery fluid is however no new spectacle for the chemist, several









# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

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The great length, 311 feet 6 inches, of the ship made it necessary to build the run bays across one of the navy yard streets and railroad tracks, upon a special steel-and-timber bridge as shown above. The launching weight of the huge ship is 5,000 tons— as now she will weigh 57,000 tons.

Photograph by H. Montier

THE "FLORIDA" READY FOR LAUNCHING AT THE BROOKLYN NAVY YARD.—[See page 374.]







## SCIENCE

A case of extraordinary if not unprecedented horizontal temperature gradient is reported on apparently trustworthy authority in the *Meteorologische Zeitschrift* for March 1910. With a temperature ranging between 0 deg and +2 deg C at Hieslingers Flindenberg on November 18th, 1909 a temperature of 20 deg at 24 deg N was simultaneously recorded at a point only 1000 m distant. The temperature difference was 20 deg C (36 deg F) in a distance of about 6 miles. While the climate at Hieslingers is tempered by the Gulf of Finland so remarkable a difference between the temperature there and in the immediate hinterland is inappreciable especially as the two stations at which observations were made are of the same altitude. The temperature difference is reminiscent to a certain extent, that a little in the north of the place where the low temperature was reported the weather was almost as warm as in Hieslingers'.

## THE NICE AVIATION MEET

WITH DETAILS OF THE CROSS-COUNTRY RACE FOR THE LONDON DAILY MAIL'S \$50,000 PRIZE

One of the principal aviation meetings which has been held abroad this year was that at Nice from April 15th to 25th. Two of our illustrations show Farman biplanes that participated in this meeting. The one in flight over the sea was piloted by Duray, an old-time automobile racing driver, while the one which is shown on the beach was piloted by George Thiers (Chaves) on the 17th ultimo accomplished several long flights above the sea. In one of these the first gave out and the machine landed on the beach, as shown. The meet opened under auspicious weather conditions and some splendid flights were made on the opening day. At one time in the afternoon four biplanes and a Hériot monoplane were all in the air at the same time. Edmoff, Chaves and Van den Horn, all of whom flew Farman biplanes, made some excellent flights. Rouster also made brilliant flights, on one occasion

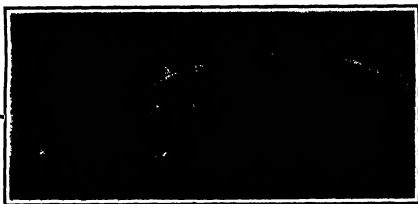
The results of the first day's flights in the various contests were as follows:

Total Distance Prize—Edmoff (Farman biplane), 130.716 kilometers (81.17 miles). Chaves (Farman biplane), 106.568 kilometers (66.33 miles). Van den Horn (Farman biplane), 87.508 kilometers (54.34 miles). Metret (Voisin biplane), 16 kilometers (9.93 miles).

This competition was for the total distance flown in all flights made during the day by each competitor. Starting Prize, Without Passenger—Edmoff

to Manchester, England, on the 17th and 18th ultimo, for the prize of \$50,000 offered three years ago by the London Daily Mail. On April 18th Mr. Claude Grahame White, an Englishman, attempted the flight of his Farman biplane. After covering the 115 miles to Litchfield in 3 hours and 5 minutes, he quit battling with the violent wind and the cold. The next day his aeroplane was badly damaged by the wind while in its temporary shelter. It was taken apart and shipped back to London for repairs. Meanwhile pilot Louis Paulhan visited London and entered the

race. His Farman biplane arrived from France on April 17th, and after working hard all day at the depot, he got it assembled and started aloft at 5:31 P. M., flying immediately to Hampton (5 miles from London) and crossing the English line at 5:31. He had a bad cold to his waist, and he returned a



crossing the Var, and another time flying half a mile out to sea. Metret flew for half an hour on his Voisin biplane, and Ollivier made several short flights in his Hériot monoplane, which appeared to interest the spectators more than the biplanes on account of its bird-like appearance. The English entrants in this meet, Messrs. Hawkinson and Kelle, were unfortunate. The first named was unable to fly more than half way around the track to the first day on account of trouble with his Darracq motor, which he was using on his fiery Farman biplane while Mr. Kelle did not receive his Wright biplane from England.

The second day of the meet nearly all the aviators made excellent flights. Herr Gruber's monoplane failed to arrive and so he did not participate in the flights. Edmoff made a flight of 80½ miles, and Van den Horn flew 40 miles. Mr. Rouster made a daring flight out to sea. While turning above the water, he was approached too closely by Edmoff, the result being that although the two aeroplanes did not touch each other, Mr. Rouster fell into the sea, and was badly damaged. The Russian aviator was fined for faulty driving.



1. Chaves's wrecked Farman machine which dropped into the water when its fuel gave out. 2. Duray flying over the beach in his Farman biplane. 3. A novel hydro-aeroplane fitted with a steam-siphon instead of motor.

## THE AVIATION MEET AT NICE.

(Farman biplane), 80 meters (262.4 feet). Starting Prize, With Passenger—Edmoff, with Prince Koudachoff (175½ pounds), 100 meters (328 feet).

Prize for fastest circuit of the course, \$400. Won by Edmoff, who flew 8½ kilometers (5.27 miles) in 6 minutes 33 1/5 seconds—a rate of 85 miles an hour.

In this aviation meet over a dozen aviators competed, and many other flights were made. The greatest sporting event that aviation has had thus far, as well as the chief demonstration of the practicability of the aeroplane for the rapid transportation of individuals, was the race from London

special train on the railway 1,000 feet below.

Soon after Paulhan started, word was brought to White, who had completed the repairs to his machine and who was waiting at the hotel. Rushing in an automobile to his aeroplane, he started at 6:23 from Wormwood Scrubs in pursuit of Paulhan. But the latter had gained an hour's flying time before darkness settled down, and he alighted at Litchfield at 8:10 just as the 16 gallons of gasoline he carried were entirely consumed.

White alighted at Benda, near Northampton, after a flight of 1 hour and 21 minutes in which he covered 80 miles. He started again at 2:54 A. M., and succeeded in getting within about 15 miles of Litchfield before Paulhan again resumed his journey. He flew over Weedon, Crick, and Rugby in the darkness, and alighted at Poleworth, nearly 100 miles from London, after an hour's flight. Late in the afternoon he flew 10 to 12 miles farther, but the race practically ended for him at Poleworth. The conditions required the flight to be made within 84 hours, and with not more than two stops at night. Paulhan (Continued on page 373)

# **ESPECIAL SPECIAL ARCH OF THE ESKIMO SNOW HOUSE.** BY A. L. KENNEDY, GRADUATE OF ALABAMA STATE UNIVERSITY OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERING.

There is a type of dome that can be built without a scaffolding and that requires a man to be immersed within the vault to insure proper construction. It is the invention and sole property of that most ingenious of arctic men, the Eskimo, and contains several principles new to civilized architecture.

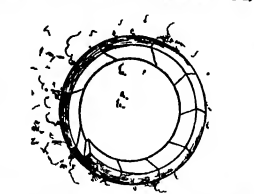
There are four fundamental types of arch and dome, of which one is the Eskimo peculiarity. The simplest and least used, because least effective is of the simple hoop-type—illustrated by and today chiefly employed for the houses of cards. Next comes the false inverted-arch where each block or brick projects beyond the one below and is held from toppling in by the weight of the material above and behind it. This type of gateway and chamber was invented independently by the architects of Agamemnon more than 3,000 years ago in ancient Greece and the precursors of the Aztecs in Mexico at nearly as early a period. This construction inherently demands a vast amount of backing or fill in proportion to the vault of the arch. It is feasible for a gate in a long wall, or for an underground hall or drain but cannot stand alone and is a false arch. A free portal, or a dome rising into the air cannot be built on this principle, which is consequently the type employed today. Our true arch embodies the third method its essential feature being the use of wedge-shaped blocks. When the last and central one of these is placed—the key stone—is dropped into place the whole mass supports itself. The top cannot fall inward unless the supports are toppled outward. The primary thrust is therefore all ways not in but out and buttressing of some sort is requisite. Another inherent defect of this arch though we are so accustomed to it that we do not usually note it, is that it is not until the key stone is fitted into final position a temporary structure must be erected to hold up the parts already in place. The last type the Eskimo vault is a true dome, opens no outward thrust and requires no temporary scaffolding. It is also unique, in that its material is not brick or stone but snow.

The construction is used for the beehive-shaped winter houses of these arctic savages and is spiral in plan as shown by the diagrams. A row of blocks is first laid on the ground in a circle or more exactly a polygon. Each of these has a small flat top and each thus raises its surface a little beyond the last, until when the circle is completed the gap in height between the last and first blocks gives the thickness for the following courses. In this manner the upper and lower surfaces of each block are parallel as in a brick but the ground upward trend given by the first course is of necessity maintained.

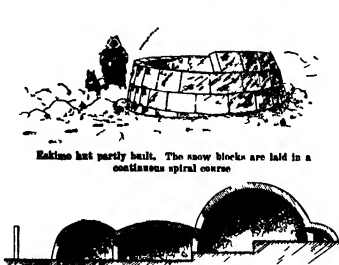
In each successive round the snow bricks are turned inward more by having their lower surfaces sloped to a level. If set squarely end to end they would before long lean inward so far that they would tumble. For this reason the end of the block last laid is cut at an angle. The next following block has the joining end slanted at the reverse angle. Thus it fits in behind the preceding and is prevented by it from slipping inward. As the house grows the circles become smaller until at last only an irregular polygonal opening is left. This is filled with a wedge-shaped block cut to shape. It is however not a key stone as the remainder of the structure supports itself.

The blocks of firm snow are usually dressed outside and handed for placing to the man on the inside. The last block he holds up with one hand alone to shape with his ivory knife in the other, and drops into position. He is then entirely inclosed in the vault. Only after the house itself is entirely completed does he cut out the low door, which to keep out the cold as much as possible is only big enough to crawl through. A long low tunnel is then built in front of the door, to break the force of the Arctic's icy blasts. When a window is wanted, a small aperture is cut out over the door and filled with a pane of clear this ice. All that is omitted is the fire or chimney. Whatever heat is produced by the small lamp is wanted inside, warmth being a more serious necessity in the cold than ventilation or freedom from smoke.

Whether the type is practicable in other materials has been doubted. The unsurpassed lightness of snow is certainly a great advantage. In heavier materials strength would, however, compensate for increased stress of gravity, and good mortar should make up



Plan view of partly built hut, showing how each block supports the next.



Section through Eskimo snow house.  
THE PROBABIL SPIRAL ARCH OF THE ESKIMO SNOW HOUSE

for the inward slapping tendency that lighter materials would show.

The greatest difficulty in working in stone would be encountered in shaping the separate pieces of masonry. Owing to the spiral and beaming construction no two blocks can be exactly alike in either angle or size and in every succeeding course each block demands more and more from the right angle in its proportions. To compute in advance exactly the proper angle for each piece so as to insure its joints would be a matter of much complex mathematical calculation.

It might however be practicable once the dimensions had been determined for a building of standard size to draw up a table of the angles and dimensions required for each successive block. If the size of the structure were reduced or increased from the stand-

ard each stone would only require to be diminished or enlarged by a fixed ratio.

It would take our ablest engineers longer to plan such a dome than an Eskimo would need to build a village, but the resulting simplicity of construction due to the inevitableness and simplicity of the process of erection without any temporary supports but trusses or reinforcement might more than compensate.

The spirally ascending beehive-like Eskimo dome is the only true vault any part or the whole of which will stand entirely by itself.

## **A GASOLINE MOTOR DRIVEN EARTH-BORING MACHINE**

The details of construction and method of operation of a unique gasoline motor-driven earth boring machine are shown in the accompanying illustration. The device was recently designed in California by Charles I. Blair and the photograph presents it in working position in actual operation at Serbian sto and near Belm (a).

It is stated that with one of these machines about 25 miles of holes were bored for use in tunneling along the right-of-way of the Western Pacific Railroad between Marysville and Oroville (a). These holes were bored under particularly trying conditions as the ground was gumbo land with the exception of a short stretch of marsh soil and so hard and so dry that every bit of it had to be broken with pick and crowbar. The most interesting part of it in addition to the hard ground had about 20 to 30 per cent small rubble yet this labor-saving device bored through all of it and did the work of from twelve to fifteen men.

Such a machine is of great value for boring holes for piers for numerous other uses for which shallow holes are required and for the purpose of lightening the labor of man. Experience shows that the harder the ground and the more difficult it is to work the more anxiously a machine of this class is desired.

This entirely new, unique and practical engine-driven apparatus is a most remarkable device in its simplicity, owing to its widespread use as a labor saver it stands unsurpassed. It will be seen that it is extremely simple, easily operated and entirely practical and will be found a great economy of time and money where post holes are to be dug, electric lines to be run, telephone poles set or where trees and vines are to be planted in holes uniform in size at top and bottom and of uniform diameter and depth.

It is held to be practical for use everywhere, as by it at the machine will work satisfactorily in either dry soil or in any place where the machine can be driven as it bays readily through hardpan and shale, soft sandstone and small rubble and as it will bore at different angles and on either side or back of the truck it will do equally good work whether on level ground uneven ground or hillside.

Near Berkeley (a) at a great number of holes were bored in very hard hardpan for large poles the machine being particularly successful in this work because the contrast between its efficiency and hard labor was so strongly marked. At Mendota (a) a record was made by one of these machines on large field work in hard dry earth 50 holes being bored 2 1/2 ft apart and 50 inches deep in 50 consecutive minutes at the hole 1 1/2 in 4 in 4 in drive (a).

For use in boring small holes a vertical engine of the double cylinder type is utilized that develops 7 1/2 horse power. In boring holes for large poles a machine of this type is fitted with an 18 inch auger effecting a depth of 6 1/2 feet. The power is supplied in this case by a double cylinder gas engine of 14 horse power capacity.

This device is said to be the first machine to be used as a man and a boy only are required for its efficient working the boy to drive the team and the man to manage the machine. Its not carrying capacity is said to be greater than that of a threshing machine costing five times as much. Its season of usefulness extends over the entire year and in many instances in hard ground has done the work of fifteen men.

It is maintained that in cold countries where other farm work

MAY 2, 1910.

is impractical during the severe season, post holes can be dug and fences built during the winter, as this machine is well adapted to boring through ice, frozen ground, hardpan, shale and the like.

The upper frame and boring tower being on a rotatable platform, one can easily adjust the machine to a hole on either side or at the rear of the machine. When the device is in a position to bore a hole, all that is necessary to do is to pull the feed clutch, and the auger drops to the ground and begins work, when the auger is loaded, by releasing the feed clutch and pulling the hoist clutch in, the auger is hoisted clear of the ground, or to any other position that may be desired.

It is of interest to note that besides boring in the kinds of soil before mentioned the machine will bore in dry clay, or in swamp land without any change of auger or bit no ground being too sticky for it to work. There is no necessity of stopping the machine to clean mud off the auger as the machine does that itself.

If there is an occasion to bore a line of holes down the middle of a well traveled road it will do the work without difficulty. A small type of earth boring machine has been designed which will bore to a depth of 4 feet and which is equipped with two augers 8 and 12 inches in diameter, while a larger machine has been developed which will bore to a depth of 8 feet. The latter is fitted with three augers 8, 12, and 16

It is stated that no change of shaft or auger is required to make the depth indicated. The time required to move from one hole to another and begin work in a fence line is from 15 to 25 seconds.

The third platoon of the machine as well as the feed rack, drill shaft, gearing, and auger shaft are made of crucible and machinery steel so as to withstand a sudden impact as when stopped by running against rocks, old posts and similar obstacles.

Chain drilling is used of the standard sprocket type and in case of a break can be easily replaced. It will be seen that this machine in boring does not scrape the earth but cuts it with chisel bits, which are quickly detachable, the entire set being changed in two minutes if desired.

It is reported that this machine has bored many holes 10 inches deep in hard ground in fifteen seconds for each hole from the time the auger touches the ground, and it is hard ground indeed when the hole cannot be bored in a minute. It has force feed, and therefore all the attendant has to do is to pull the lever and the machine does the work.

**LAUNCH OF THE "FLORIDA."**  
On the morning of Thursday, May 12th, there will be launched at the Brooklyn Navy Yard the second of the two largest battleships yet built in the United States.

States the "Florida." The sister ship, the "Utah," which in December last took the water at Camden No. 1 from the building slips of the New York Shipbuilding Company, weighed about eight thousand tons. The launching weight of the "Florida" will be about nine thousand tons, which is, in itself a record for an event of this character. The keel of the "Florida" was laid on the 10th inst.

tion has been carried on un-

under the supervision of Naval Constructor William J. Baxter with Naval Constructor William G. Groenbeck immediately in charge.

In view of the great importance of the ship, and the gratifying rapidity with which she has been built, preparations have been made to render the ceremony of launching particularly brilliant. Among the guests on the launching platform will be President Taft, Secretary George Von L. Meyer, Assistant Secretary of the Navy, Admiral Wm. B. Smith, Chief of Naval Operations, and Admiral C. D. Evans, Commander in Chief, U. S. Fleet. Also present will be the Governor of Florida with his staff, Admiral Dwyer, and Rear Admiral Evans. Speeches will be made by Governor von K. and Admiral C. D. Evans. The battleship will be launched at the yard between six and seven thousand tons, and the officers of the ship will assist in giving the ship dignity to the occasion. It is also the custom of having our ships christened by a representative of the State or city after which they are named, the ceremony will be performed by Miss Elizabeth Fleming of Jacksonville, Fla.

The naval constructors and employees of the Brooklyn Navy Yard are to be congratulated on having, for the second time demonstrated that they are capable of building the largest and most modern warships not only with dispatch but of the most thorough and durable workmanship, for it will be called on September 29th 1904 the flagship "Connecticut," which, although a much smaller ship than the "Florida" (built by about 6,000 tons, in fact) was nevertheless the

largest vessel ever built in the United States navy, and approximately as large as any vessel in the navy of the world. It is a long ship, however, from the 16,000-ton "Connecticut" to a 21,825-ton "Florida," and the Brooklyn Navy Yard should receive full credit for the fact, that while eighteen and a half months elapsed from the laying of the keel to the launching of the "Connecticut," it has taken only fourteen months to do the same amount of work on the big ship. The material has been built into the hull at an average rate of about twenty-five tons per working day of eight hours. If all goes well, the half-million-pound ship will be completed early next spring. The date of the completion of the machinery is somewhat uncertain, the recent reorganization of the navy having thrown the steam engineering shops somewhat out of their stride.

The greater length of the "Florida," which exceeds the "Connecticut" by over sixty-five feet, her greater beam of eleven feet four and a half inches, and her increased launching weight of many thousand tons necessitated, of course, a great enlargement and strengthening of the permanent and launching ways, and severely taxed the capacity of the building slip (Our front page illustration shows how the ram of the ship extends entirely across one of the struts of the yard and abuts against the wall of a building).

Just here it is well to notice how, in order to secure the desired speed of 20 1/2 knots, the lines of the ship are so arranged that the water is forced to flow in a straight line. The entrance of the "Florida" appears to be as fine as that of our armored cruisers. At the same time, the hull is so arranged that the water is forced to flow in a straight line. The water line the sections are forced up very rapidly, and the water is forced to flow in a straight line. The water line the sections are forced up very rapidly, and the water is forced to flow in a straight line. The water line the sections are forced up very rapidly, and the water is forced to flow in a straight line.

With the launching of the "Florida," the United States navy will have afloat its first complete division of oblique of the dreadnought type consisting of the "Delaware," "North Dakota," "Utah," and "Florida." A study of the accompanying table shows that the

[illegible]

\* With two-thirds full supply ammunition and stores  
† With two-thirds full supply stores and food and full supply ammunition.

[illegible]

# Correspondence.

## WHY WATCH SPRINGS BREAK.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:—I read the discussion in your pages as to "Why watch springs break." As the question apparently still remains unsettled, I feel tempted to contribute some additional views on the subject.

Formerly clock springs were finished very rough, giving the convolutions considerable frictional grip upon each other. For this reason, when running down, there was a very sudden stoppage, while the clock every few minutes, indicating the propelling force was spasmodic. Not only so, but the ticking sound of the escapement decreased in loudness as the time was prolonged from the beginning of the morning. To regulate this it occurred to me to apply a more uniform lubricant to the spring to prevent the said friction. The result of so doing was a gratifying uniformity of tick—but only for a few hours—until the spring broke.

After the third experience of this kind I ceased to regard it as a mere coincidence, and thereafter applied no oil if there was sufficient to prevent rudding already on the steel.

The mooling of a watch spring and of the kind of clock spring that has just been described differs in that the watch spring winds from the outside of the coil, while the clock spring winds from the inside of the coil, from the center of the coil. For this reason the latter is not subjected to a breaking from contraction due to cold, as there is always some room for the contraction to take place—expanding in the positive momentary period just after winding. The same is not the case with a watch spring.

If over-lubrication is destructive to the structure of steel in a clock spring, rendering the convolutions continually active and under unmitigated strain, the same would also apply to a watch spring. Watch springs being smaller than those intended for clocks are naturally proportionately stiffer, and would reduce the strain longer, but that it is detrimental is probable. But all on a watch spring is absolutely necessary solely to provide for this thermometric movement which an only take place between the winding and the unwinding of the spring. Yet the wearing strain on a spring due to over-lubrication can only be a contributory cause to the prevalent breaking of this part. It is possible to show the cause of the breaking, and to reduce the breaking in an hour to three hours after winding, and that the most frequent position of fracture is just outside of the annealed tip attached to the arbor.

Thus the owner takes his watch from his pocket where its temperature was, say 80 deg., and winds it until it brings up hard. The coil is then central and solid upon its arbor, which is held fast by a pawl and ratchet.

In a little while the warper of the coil contains the watch removes it, hanging it on the back of a chair while he returns for the night. The temperature of the watch gradually falls to say 50 deg. The contraction being provided for. The morning will disclose. If the coil has not been wound too tightly on, if some time has elapsed before cooling to enable it to draw on what has been paid out, or even if the rate of cooling and consequent contraction has not exceeded the rate of release due to the movement of the works, the spring may escape. Just what surprised the writer is not the breakage but the length of service many springs attain.

When one considers that the greatest movement of contraction is on the outside of the coil, because of its greater area, that the coil is under unmitigated strain and rigid by winding, and that thus a powerful contracting force is added thereto, principally on the outside of the circle where the leverage is greatest, it is not difficult to realize why a spring stretched to its elastic limit by contraction from cold with no slack to draw upon, each turn of the spring, from the outside inward, as an ever-increasing tension. An inner turn contracts, resistance continues, and the outer increases the spreading, expanding (tend of its temper. The change is altogether too rapid to permit of any unmitigated movement, and the force thus added to the adjacent surrounding strain, increases strain, gathering force with each succeeding fracture until, like a "Prince Rupert's drop," the post-up strain comes to rest with explosive suppression.

That the phase displacer mechanism does not necessarily indicate that it was produced from external influence, but rather that it was evolved by excessive strain and retained by the steel by virtue of its hardness, is as plainly evidenced by many machine's parts subjected to great service.

Regarding the preference of springs to break in the

summer months, is it not sufficiently evident from the following three causes?

1. The more constant and wearing strain due to the better lubricating effect of warm oil.
2. The increased solidity of the coil when wound up, due to a thinner film of oil between the convolutions due to warms.
3. The looser texture and greater proportional shrinkage of a warm spring compared with a cool one.

As to the remedy for the uncertainty of time-keeping, it would seem sufficient to provide for the longitudinal expansion and contraction of the springs, and the simplest way would be to make them of metal insensitive to these changes. Such an alloy has been described in *Scientific American* November, 1899, No. 1114, by M. Goulaume, which he calls "Invar" and is composed of steel with an admixture of 36 per cent nickel. It is used for spiral springs, pendulums and graduated scales for instruments. The fact that it does not rust should complete its adaptability to this purpose, as then it could be used without lubricant and, thus, except for a short portion at one time, be relieved of continuous and active strain.

Just how the nickel component will affect its permanency of temper remains to be proven, but even if it retains sufficient recoiling force for its purpose for five years, it would at least be worth trying of its wearing strength and not leave its owner in the lurch, which is perhaps all the improvement needed.

Another possible remedy which modern practice would endorse is to quite loosely wind to carbonize the roller or plate, from which the spring is coiled, from one side only. The result would be, when chilled, a hard side (for the inner side) and a soft or elastically tough side (for the outer side) with a general benefit of greater spring power with improved tensile strength.

Watchmakers will tell you that the breaking of main springs saves many good watches from having their pivots cut off, from sheer wear, and the views of the manufacturer need not be consulted, but the ordinary citizen would prefer to have the spring as reliable as the rest of the watch. JAMES E. FRANKS.

St. John N B

## INTERESTING MAGIC SQUARE.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

In the December 11th issue of the *Scientific American* (page 516) Mr. A. Galpin gives an interesting construction of magic squares, containing all the

40	34	18	72	30	26
50	44	28	11	3	69
60	54	38	21	13	6
70	64	48	31	23	8
79	74	57	39	35	7
89	84	67	49	45	9
99	94	77	59	55	11
109	104	87	69	65	13
119	114	97	79	75	15
129	124	107	89	85	17
139	134	117	99	95	19
149	144	127	109	105	21
159	154	137	119	115	23
169	164	147	129	125	25
179	174	157	139	135	27
189	184	167	149	145	29

numbers in the inscribed diagonal square. But this construction is applicable not only, as Mr. Galpin says, when the basis is a prime number, but more powerfully when the basis is an odd number (1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, ...).

The proof is very easy. There is here the square of 9, as example of the simplest odd number of the prime. The general proof is an interesting exercise of algebra.

Genoa, Italy

De G. VALLA.

## HYDROGEN IN A HOT-WATER SYSTEM.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

A short time since I noticed a phenomenon which I believe will be of interest to many of the readers of the *Scientific American*.

The main building of our experiment station here is heated with hot water. It has been one of my duties to see that the system is working properly, and in this connection I have had to open the air vents on the radiators frequently. I was surprised to find that the radiators on the top floor (a two-story building) always seemed to have air in them, in spite of the fact that the system was fully charged and very little or no new water admitted. I began to suspect that this condition had to be accounted for in some other way. There was not a possibility that the gas could be hydrogen? For what other gas would be likely to form from these conditions, unless it be a trace of carbon monoxide? At any rate, when I applied a match the gas ignited with the familiar pop of hydrogen and burned with its characteristic almost colorless flame. Assuming that the gas is hydrogen (I have no means of testing it) the question suggests itself: Is this a case of oxidation of the iron setting free hydrogen? Is an electrolytic effect, caused by galvanic couples of

either carbon and iron or iron and the brass connections in the system? Or is the gas methane? It may be noted further that the gas does not seem to collect in the radiators in the lower floor to a great extent, if any. Of course, this may be due to the gas being dissolved under the increased static pressure. The static pressure in the system is about 100 lbs. per square foot over ten feet of water at the present time. The water is of exceptional purity, being supplied by a spring. The fact, however, that small quantities of water have to be added occasionally to replace the loss in the system might suggest the presence of methane. That question can only be settled by chemical analysis.

Puyallup, Wash.

C. WESTERLAND

## AN EARLY APPEARANCE OF RUBBER'S COMET

To the Editor of the *Scientific American*:—The change which has come to the people in their view of comets is worthy of notice. Seventy years ago when Ruben's comet made its appearance, a great deal of fear was aroused. I was a young boy, but remember very well the alarm of the people. It was indeed very strange and portentous, for it swished about from the south to the horizon, and was very brilliant. Its color varied from a light to a fiery red, and its length was such that it stretched from the south to the horizon. It hovered so long and was so conspicuous that all classes, young and old, were greatly impressed. About that time the Malaria epidemic prevailed, and there were many who looked upon the comet as a sure sign that the world was surely coming to an end. There have been other comets which have appeared, but this has exceeded all others in the impression made.

Salon, Mass.

STEPHEN D. PLATT

## A NEW SCIENCE ORGAN OF NORTHLAND.

Every history collector has had the unpleasant experience that some historians, and particularly those of the species of Cretaceous (mountain) class, will not let his approach from a distance and fly away in time. This observation led me to think that these animals must have an auditory organ which warns them of approaching danger by receiving sound, and accordingly he expressed the supposition that two little depressions at the first posterior segment of the body might be organs of hearing. A thorough investigation of this organ has been made, and was published in *Zoologische Jahrbücher*, Abteilung für Anatomie, vol. 27, No. 4.

It is rather surprising that with a group so frequently collected (although indeed investigated, as a rule only as to their position within a system) as the Northland, an organ could escape observation which is found quite generally in this group and which is by no means inconspicuous, but can be observed without difficulty with the naked eye as a striking formation on each side of the first abdominal segment. This location probably explains why this organ should have been seen by many persons without arousing the suspicion that it could be a new organ, for naturally enough such organs are looked for chiefly at the head, particularly at the feet, although other parts of the body may be the seat of specific sense organs, for instance, grasshoppers have their organs of hearing at the base of the abdomen, that is, at the same place where the corresponding organ of the Northland has been discovered.

When examining the animal we see on each side at the line separating the chest from the abdomen and near the joint of the legs a small, oval, slightly attached, deep channel which toward the surface is surrounded by several humps. The external morphology of this organ varies in details with the different species of Northland, with some appearing as a narrow slit visible from the outside, being concealed by long hairs at close together. The microscopic examination of a series of sections shows that only one of the ridges in the vicinity of the axis of the organ has the one nearest the back can be considered a "sensory ridge," but that this one has true sensory cells and sensory hairs and thus gives the organ the character of a sense organ. From a supposition, as mentioned above, that this is an auditory organ, may very well be maintained after the structure of the organ answers all the requirements of an organ of hearing. But experimental results of this type organ have to be awaited. Dr. Dörmann promises a further report, dealing with this phase of the subject.—Prothelous

Approximately 3,748 miles of new main track were built in the United States during the year 1909 as compared with 3,214 miles for 1908. The new record was the smallest since 1897, when 2,109 miles were built. Three figures do not include new second third or fourth track, or branch electric lines. The net increase during the year 1909 was 145,176 feet, or 28 per cent less mileage was built than in 1907.

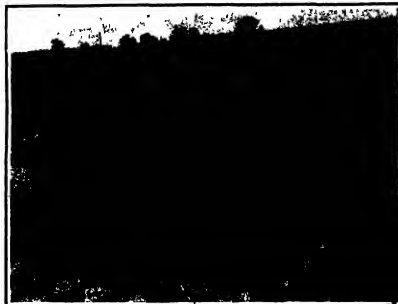
# REINFORCED CONCRETE WATER WORKS CONSTRUCTION

BY FRANK C. PERKINS

The accompanying views of the Indianapolis water works show an interesting application of reinforced concrete to this class of construction. A gravity flow supplies the reinforced concrete filter plant from the Indiana State Central Canal which was constructed originally by the State for transportation purposes, but was taken over for water works service. At a dis-

A reinforced concrete pipe line which is 640 feet in length, and has a diameter of 48 inches, and a shell 4 inches thick, conducts the raw water to the precipitation basin. The pipe is laid 11 feet below the hydraulic gradient. It is reinforced with  $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch twisted bars spaced 8 inches on centers, the shell of the pipe being built in three operations.

are 8 inches in width and 18 inches deep. They are carried on 18-inch I-beams, incased in concrete and bolted to the columns. The reinforced partition walls, 1 foot thick, are 350 feet in length. They are reinforced in both directions, and measure 14 to 17 feet in height. The entire slab covers 70,000 square feet in each double filter. It is built monolithic, without



View showing construction of the groined-arch floor, with the reinforcement and forms in place



Operating floor of the chemical house in which the water is purified in lime and iron saturating tanks.

tance of about 8 miles above the intake to the filters are located the head gates and concrete siphon ways of this canal which is carried over Falls Creek near the filter plant in an open aqueduct at an elevation of about 18 feet above the creek.

The chemical house columns, floors and walls as well as stairways and roof are of reinforced concrete throughout. The lower part of the building contains the lime saturating tanks over which are constructed the iron solution tanks all of which are of concrete. They are used in connection with the coagulating basins in the treatment of the raw water during seasons of excessive turbidity.

The following account of these works is based upon data furnished by the constructing engineer, William Chris Mabey. The water, which is drawn from the Raw River is clarified by coagulation in precipitation basins, which are provided with baffle walls spaced 10 feet apart, and which are reinforced for the prevention of cracks. A 4-inch slab of concrete, reinforced with twisted rods spaced 4 feet apart in each direction is used for filling the sloping embankments of earth while the slab floor, laid in blocks 8 feet square, is 4 inches in thickness.

The water is measured in a Venturi meter, 42 inches in diameter, which has a throat diameter of 21 inches. The meter is built in the raw water conduit the indicating apparatus being located in the laboratory.

In the construction of the conduit a concrete cradle 30 inches wide was first laid to grade. In this were imbedded the lower rods, which were heated and bent in the field to the required shape, and left long enough to project a foot into the upper ring. On the cradle were then placed the semi-circular metal forms, which were braced down by staked timbers. The mixture of cement, in the proportion of 4 of gravel, 3 of sand, and 1 of cement, was poured into the space forming the lower half of the pipe. The upper half was then constructed by jacking the metal forms. The cost of the pipe, which contained about 300 cubic yards of concrete, was \$12.40 per cubic yard.

The pure water reservoir, with a capacity of 5½ million gallons, was built near Falls Creek, on a gravel foundation, at ordinary ground water level. The earth filling is 2 feet deep on the cover, the weight of the structure itself overcoming any upward pressure that may occur. The groined arch bottom was designed to resist the upward thrust of high ground water at such times as the reservoir is empty, the inverted groined arch construction distributing the load uniformly over the bottom. The reinforcement of the bottom consists of  $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch twisted bars, spaced 10 inches on centers in each direction.

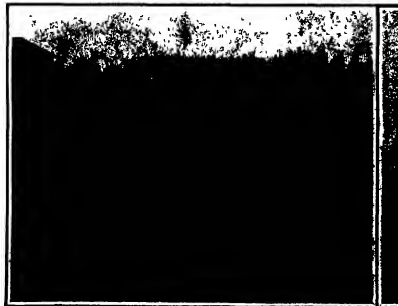
The filter cover consists of reinforced 3-inch slabs, supported by concrete beams, a trifle less than 30 feet long, and spaced nearly 7 feet on centers. The beams

any attempt to provide expansion joints. A cable tramway with a span of 450 feet was used in the construction. A stationary engine and cable was used for propelling a shuttle car on a narrow-gauge track, over which the concrete was handled from the mixer to the railway, 80 cubic yards per day being used in covering 5,000 square feet of surface. The cost of the filter covers was \$14.65 per cubic yard, and the cost of the walls \$12.06.

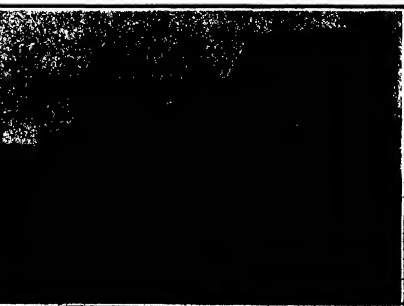
The reinforced concrete aqueduct, 800 feet in length, contains 4,500 cubic yards of concrete, which cost \$4.53 per cubic yard including the cement, steel, sand and gravel, as well as the lumber, forms, labor, and concrete labor. It is 41 feet wide and has four spans of 40 feet each with a 10-foot rise from the springing line to the soffit, and a crown thickness of 18 inches for each of the four segmental arches.

The foundations for the piers, wing walls and abutments were carried down 18 feet below low water, and rest upon a bed of sand and gravel. The aqueduct takes the place of a wood aqueduct, which was supported by steel trusses on masonry piers, all of which were carried away by a flood which undermined the middle pier, the superstructure breaking up as the substructure crumbled away.

With regard to the use of concrete for works of this character, Mr. Mabey, the constructing engineer of these water works, makes the following comments:



Steel reinforcement of the 66-inch conduit.



The conduit concrete pump for mixing the concrete.

REINFORCED CONCRETE WATER WORKS CONSTRUCTION.

Concrete has many advantages over other types of construction. It is easily and conveniently handled and transported, often at a less cost than stone masonry, and often suitable sand and gravel for the work in hand can be found on the site. With proper supervision, skilled labor is not essential in the usual work, moreover, the art of mixing and handling concrete has been so perfected that machines do most of the work. Concrete has the additional advantage over stone that it may be molded into intricate shapes.

To produce concrete surfaces of a satisfactory smoothness and uniformity, it is necessary that the molds be carefully and properly built, and also that the concrete be of the proper consistency to flow readily into the prepared molds. It is also necessary to thoroughly churn and keep it in motion in the molds until the air has been removed and every cavity filled with mortar. Properly handled in this manner, it will not be necessary to brush or plaster the work after the removal of the forms. Concrete may be placed in moderately freezing weather, provided proper precautions are taken to warm the gravel or stone and sand, to heat the water and to cover the work until initial set takes place.

The problem of preventing ugly cracks forming in concrete is one that has worried many engineers. Plain concrete is liable to crack where you least expect it, and it has become the practice to provide for these cracks by building short sections in alternate blocks. However, by the judicious introduction of steel bars, objectionable contraction cracks can be entirely eliminated.

The water works engineer or superintendent is particularly interested in the subject of waterproofing concrete. It has been shown that wet concrete is more dense and consequently more impervious than dry concrete and that concrete becomes more or less porous as the quantity of cement is increased or diminished. A smoothly troweled surface produces a water-tight film or skin. It has also been found that slaked lime added to the concrete mixture helps to make it less permeable. The lime does not injure the cement in any way, although retarding the setting

time, tar, pitch and asphalt mixtures applied on concrete are used with more or less success. A wash composed of one pound of tar, five pounds of alum and two gallons of water, applied with a brush and well rubbed in, has been used successfully on government fortifications.

A rich cement mortar plastered over concrete makes a very good waterproofing medium. Proper attention to these details will produce a water-tight structure, if there is not likely to be contraction cracks, but in works of any magnitude these are bound to occur and they can be best provided against by the introduction of steel bars. A rich concrete properly rein-

forced, as explained above, could be used to bring the color of an illuminant into near agreement with daylight, though reducing its intensity in doing so. Mr. Ives presents some spectrophotometric curves of natural sources of light, and a diagram illustrating the amount and nature of light from the various sources which must be absorbed to produce white light. He also tabulates the "daylight efficiency" of a number of artificial illuminants. The method, however, is of practical rather than of scientific interest since it depends upon the particular wavelength for which the intensity is assumed to be unity, when plotting the spectrum curves. In addition, "selective" sources such as the mercury arc lamp which yields a spectrum consisting of isolated bright lines, would work out to zero efficiency according to the above method. Yet if we judge by sensation such sources contain a certain amount of white light. Mr. Ives then proceeds to discuss a second method based on the fact that any color can be matched by a mixture of white light and one ray of the spectrum. The ratio of the white light used in attaining such a match to the intensity of the source studied is then regarded as an alternative method of defining white light efficiency which Mr. Ives in this case terms "white sensation efficiency." He points out that classification on this method gives rise to materially different results from those arrived at by the former method. The efficiency in the case of the second method appears to be higher. Yet the result gives no indication of the ability of the source to reveal colors of surrounding objects, and merely indicates the color of a white surface illuminated by the source. In conclusion, Mr. Ives remarks that the first method is preferable from the practical standpoint, and the latter from the purely scientific one.

It is estimated that the Gold Coast and Ashanti could supply 60,000 logs of mahogany and cedar per year if the internal communication were better. With mechanical haulage, such as traction engines and light railways, the output could be increased to some 250,000 logs per annum without depleting the natural reserves.



Covered reservoir under construction, showing the ground floor, the reinforced slab roof, and the supporting columns.

forced, coated with plaster and troweled smooth makes an ideal waterproof structure.

**The Daylight Intensity of Artificial Illuminants.**  
In a recent publication of the Bureau of Standards, Mr. H. E. Ives suggests that there is need of some method of estimating the resemblance of artificial illuminants to daylight that is, of determining their daylight efficiency. Assuming that, by the extraction of certain qualities of light in an illuminant its color could be brought to resemble that of daylight very closely, the daylight efficiency of a source might be expressed in the form (intensity of available white light)/(total intensity of source). Mr. Ives suggests two methods of studying this question. The first is based upon the use of suitable absorbing screens



Adjusted by which the water is conducted to the filter plant of the Indianapolis water works.

The architectural possibilities of reinforced concrete are shown in this graceful, arched aqueduct.

REINFORCED CONCRETE WATER WORKS CONSTRUCTION.

## THE HEAVENS IN MAY

BY HENRY NORRIS RUSSELL

IT is seldom that so much of interest to the amateur astronomer happens in a single month as in the one which is just before us.

First, of course, is the return of Halley's comet to the position where it is seen to the best advantage. Early in the month it is favorably placed for observation before day break, on the 16th it passes directly between us and the sun, and later it appears to even greater advantage in the evening sky.

At the beginning of May the comet is about 74 million miles away, but it approaches us rapidly, its distance diminishing to 41 million miles on the 16th, and 27 million on the 14th. As it was about at the limit of visibility to the naked eye on April 12th, while still 125 million miles from us, it is now a fairly conspicuous one object.

The planet Venus is fortunately near by and serves as an excellent "pointer" to the comet. Anyone, however little familiar with the heavens, can easily find the latter by observing the following directions.

Choose a window from which the eastern sky is visible clear down to the horizon. Rise about 8:15 A. M. and look due east. The very bright starlike object, low down in the sky, is Venus. The comet is to the left of this and a little higher up at a distance about as great as the length of the bow of the Great Dipper. It will probably be rather fainter than the four stars forming a great square, which lie above and to the left of Venus, about twice as far away as the comet.

These directions hold good from May 1st to May 12th. On the 14th the comet will be on a level with Venus, and a little farther to the left. On the 16th it will be much lower than the planet and about 30 deg. to the left. After this the comet, or at least its head, can hardly be seen clear of the morning twilight.

It will be very interesting to watch the comet grow larger and brighter night by night as it comes nearer to us. How long its tail will be it is impossible to predict. The best time to see this however, will in any case be from the 7th onward, when the moon is out of the way and the sky dark. The comet will be larger and brighter, too, at this time than previously.

Even after the head gets too near the sun to be seen, the tail may be observable in the mornings of the 17th and 18th extending upward and to the right from the eastern horizon, perhaps broad and fan-shaped, from the effects of perspective, since the end of it will be much nearer us than the head.

On the evening of the 18th or morning of the 19th (according to the observer's longitude) the comet passes between us and the sun, and the earth will be enveloped in its tail. If the latter is long enough (over 15 million miles).

If this evening is clear it will be of great interest and importance to look for illumination of the sky in the early evening, just after sunset, the comet's tail will be in the east, but a few hours later it will have passed over toward the west. If, as is sometimes supposed the tail is a hollow cone of light, there will be two times at which the sky in general is comparatively brightly illuminated separated by an interval while we are in the darker center of the tail. Meanwhile, observers on the opposite side of our planet will have the rare privilege of seeing the sun through the comet's head. Only the extreme western portion of the United States is included in

this favored region, but as the comet enters upon the sun's disk at 4:23 P. M. by Pacific standard time and remains on it till 7:23, the transit will be visible all along the coast. The comet passes almost squarely across the center of the sun from west to east.

Paradoxical as it may seem, it is probable that the ordinary observer, even with a small telescope and dark glasses, will not be able to detect even the slightest trace of the comet's passage. With powerful instruments the nucleus, if solid, might be seen as a dark speck against the sun, if it is over 50 miles in diameter, but it is improbable that it is anything like so large, for, as has already been stated in these columns, the whole amount of light reflected from the comet, when remote from the sun, is no more than a single mass 20 miles across would send us.

It is possible, too, that the absorption of the gases composing the envelope of the head and the tail may be detected by means of the spectroscopic, and as we will be looking through the tail lengthwise,

the sun on the 21st and of the moon on the 23rd. The former is an important eclipse, the maximum duration of the total phase being over four minutes, but unfortunately the track of the shadow lies almost entirely in the Southern Ocean, only crossing the southern half of Tasmania, so that few stations are available for observers. As a partial eclipse it is visible throughout Australia, New Guinea, and the neighboring islands.

The lunar eclipse of the 13th is of more interest to us, being visible throughout the United States, excepting Alaska. The moon enters the earth's penumbra at 9:15 eastern standard time, and first touches the shadow at 10:44. At nine minutes after midnight she disappears in it completely, and does not emerge till 1 A. M. At the middle of the eclipse, however, her southern edge is only about 300 miles inside the shadow, so that it will be considerably illuminated by sunlight refracted through our atmosphere. At 3:30 A. M. the moon takes leave of the shadow entirely, and at 4:48 of the penumbra. This eclipse will be of importance to observers on the Pacific coast, as it will give them a chance to photograph Halley's comet on a dark sky. The comet will have set four in the east before twilight comes.

## THE HEAVENS

With so much else to engage our attention, our glance at the stars must be short. The most prominent constellations in the west are Gemini and Cassiopeia, in the northwest, Auriga, due north, Cassiopeia below the Pole, Ursa Minor and Draco south, and the Great Bear almost overhead. In the northeast Lyra is prominent, and in the east Hercules, Corona, and Boötes. Scorpio is rising in the southeast. Due south is Virgo. As our initial shows, there are at the beginning of the month the slightest resemblance in the stars to the figure for which they were named.

We may note the bright star Spica, a spectroscopic binary at a great distance from us, and the double star  $\gamma$  (now close to Jupiter) which is now separable with a small telescope, but in 1835 appeared hardly be seen double with the largest instruments then existing. The two components were then at the closest point of the very eccentric orbit, in which they revolve about one another in some 180 years.

## THE PLANETS

Mercury is evening star until the 26th, when he passes through inferior conjunction, between us and the sun, and becomes a morning star. He can be best seen at the beginning of the month, about an hour and a half before the sun. At this time he is in Taurus between Aldebaran and the Pleiades, and should be easy to see.

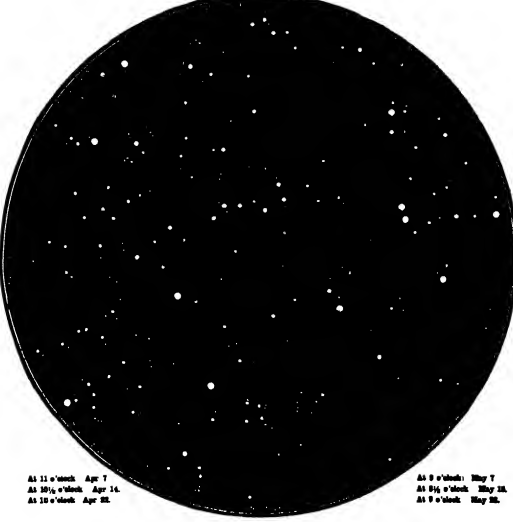
Venus is morning star, rising a little after 3 A. M. and exceedingly conspicuous all through the month. Mars is evening star in Gemini, setting about 10:30 P. M. in the middle of the month, at which time he is quite close to the star  $\gamma$  Gemma (observed on moon).

Jupiter is well past opposition, but is visible most of the night, remaining in sight till nearly 4 A. M. on the 1st, and till a little before 3 A. M. on the 13th.

Saturn is morning star in Aries, rising about an hour earlier than the sun in the middle of the month and two hours at its end; but it is too low to be conspicuous.

Uranus is in Sagittarius, and comes to the meridian at 4 A. M. on the 19th. Neptune is in Gemini, observable most of the night. On the 25th he is in conjunction with Mars, being 1 deg. 58 min. south of the latter. This may be a good chance for amateur work.

(Continued on page 382.)



NIGHT SKY: APRIL AND MAY

At 9 o'clock, Apr. 7.  
At 10 o'clock, Apr. 14.  
At 10 o'clock, Apr. 21.

At 9 o'clock, April 28.

At 9 o'clock, May 7.  
At 9 o'clock, May 14.  
At 9 o'clock, May 21.

nearly 15 million miles of it will be there to exert any possible effect on the sun's light. Even so, it will not be surprising to many astronomers if nothing unusual is detected.

Such negative results will however be scientifically valuable, since they will enable us to say that the materials composing the comet do not exceed certain limits of mass or density.

Transits of comets across the sun are very rare. The most remarkable previous instance is that of the great comet of 1852, which, though so bright that it could be seen close to the sun in broad daylight with the naked eye, vanished completely when in front of the sun's disk, showing that it was practically perfectly transparent.

On the evening of the 19th we may perhaps already see the comet's tail in the evening sky, though its head will not set while the twilight is still very strong. On the 20th, however, it will be visible till about 9 P. M., on the 22nd till 10:30, and on the 26th, and afterward until after 11 P. M.

On the 21st the comet's head will be close to the star  $\gamma$  Gemma; on the 23rd about 10 deg. above Procyon, and on the 25th near  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  Hydra. Fuller details will be given later.

This month is also notable for two total eclipses of



## NATURE AS AN INVENTOR

BY PERCY COLLINS

Civilized man justly prides himself upon his numerous inventions and mechanical devices, but it is possible that inventors in general would boast less of their achievements did they realize that the patents in which they have established their rights are really nothing more than modern reproductions of devices which have been employed by Nature from the beginning of time. It is a fact that there is scarcely an invention of man that has not its prototype in Nature. Sometimes these prototypes are of a rough-and-ready character. More often, however, they have been brought to the highest pitch of perfection. It is little short of amazing that primitive man should have remained blind, through so many centuries, to the significance and value of these inventions of Nature. It has been said that almost all of man's achievements as an inventor have their prototypes either in the animal or vegetable kingdom. Obviously, therefore, it would be impossible to attempt—in the limits of a short article—anything approaching a complete catalogue of these coincidences. Yet a few of them may be

selected, almost at random, and they will serve to show how, after much labor and thought, man has perfected devices which at the time appeared to him to be original, although in reality they were nothing more than reproductions.

As a first instance we may take grasping tools—a whole tribe of implements ranging from surgical forceps and sugar tongs to gasfitters' pliers and the vast pincers by means of which great masses of white-hot metal are manipulated upon the giant anvils of our workshops. It is scarcely too much to affirm that, without such tools as these, art, science and manufacture would long ago have ceased to advance. The reader needs only to pause for a moment to realize how important a part is played by these familiar implements in the activities of human life, and when man first discovered how to make and use such things he must have benefited instantly. Yet all these tools have their parallels in Nature, and one is fain to imagine that some of these prototypes might still supply useful hints to modern toolmakers. Perhaps the

most perfect example of the powerful pincer in Nature is the claw of a crab or a lobster. The power of the crab's claw is so great that a bite from a large crab will inflict a severe injury. It is related that fisher men who have been feeling for crabs in the crevices of the rocks at low water have occasionally had their hand seized by a large specimen, and being unable to liberate themselves have been drowned by the returning tide. Among other pincer-carrying animals are scorpions, while the insects known as cawlegs carry a dainty pair of forceps at the end of the body, and employ the tools for feeding their simple and delicate wings. The opposable thumb and forefinger constitute, in effect, a most useful pair of pincers adaptable to many uses, and it is strange that man should so long have overlooked the lesson in mechanics which they teach. Robots and scissors are, of course, closely allied in principle to grasping tools, yet they have come to us only with the advance of civilization—no savage tribes having the least idea of them or their

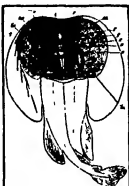
(Continued on page 181)



The first bottle—a gourd



The first ball-and-socket joint—a human shoulder



Nature's electric battery—the electric ray or torpedo



The first scaphoid—a moth whose scaphoid ripens its cocoon



The first pump—a heart



One of the first compasses, a compass which builds itself, and, so cleverly perfected that, if once taken out, no human hand can put them back again



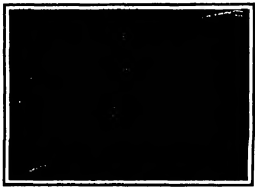
The first hydrostatic syringe. The arrangement of nerve and vessel by which the female scorpion stings, and enlarges a puncture. The ant's mouth-cock which forms a hole through which venom is injected



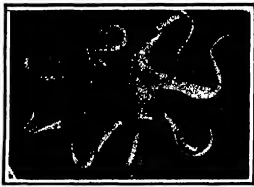
The first tailbone—the "coccyx," which has a little tail to assist with air and ship over the water, supplied by the bones



The human eye of tonight's America. Light without heat—the illuminating engineer's lens



The first snout. The tailbone, which stitches the leaves of her coat together



The first "cupping apparatus"—an octopus



The egg of the monkey. A hen that cannot run off a shell, if she were to run around and around



A lobster's claw. The original of a gas-fitter's pincers



The first fish. The "cawlegs" of the insect, whose wings are spread as that found in any landscape, shop

NATURE AS AN INVENTOR.

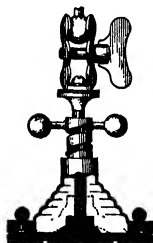
## CURIOSITIES OF SCIENCE AND INVENTION

**SUCTION BRACKET FOR MIRRORS.**  
There is nothing very novel in supporting a device on a smooth surface by means of a suction cup. However, the suction support illustrated in the accompanying engraving is provided with a very ingenious



HAVING MIRROR ATTACHED TO A WINDOW PANE WITH SUCTION BRACKET.

method of producing an efficient vacuum. The photograph shows a shiving mirror secured by means of a ball joint to the suction bracket and the bracket is supported on a window pane. So tightly does the device adhere to the window that it is possible to raise the window by lifting the bracket. The bracket cannot be pulled off the glass without danger of breaking the window pane. The line drawing shows a sectional view of the bracket, and illustrates the method of producing the suction. The base of the bracket is provided with a rubber disk, the center of which is secured to a square shaft on which the mirror is supported. Mounted on this shaft and free to turn thereon, is a sleeve in which a spiral groove is cut to receive a pin projecting from the square shaft. The sleeve is provided with a pair of ball knobs by which it may be gripped and turned, forcing the shaft outward and thus cupping the rubber disk as indicated by dotted lines. There is no possibility of leak up except under the edge of the disk. A bracket thus applied will adhere firmly for weeks at a time. The stand may be secured to any smooth surface and is particularly adapted for a shiving mirror because it may be placed directly on the window pane where the best light for shiving can be obtained.



THE MIRROR BRACKET BROKEN AWAY TO SHOW THE SUCTION DISK.

rated by dotted lines. There is no possibility of leak up except under the edge of the disk. A bracket thus applied will adhere firmly for weeks at a time. The stand may be secured to any smooth surface and is particularly adapted for a shiving mirror because it may be placed directly on the window pane where the best light for shiving can be obtained.

#### THE OLD "INVICTA" LOCOMOTIVE AS A MONUMENT

A public monument of interest to all who make a study of the evolution of the modern locomotive has recently been set up in Canterbury, England. Fixed on a pedestal beneath the Norman walls of the historic city is the old "Invicta" engine, which in May, 1825, hauled the first train on the Canterbury to Whitstable Railway—the pioneer iron road of the



GEORGE STEPHENSON'S "INVICTA" NOW SET UP AS A MONUMENT

south of Britain. The locomotive was built by George Stephenson. It will be observed that the cylinders and valve chests are very similar to those on the modern locomotive. The cylinders are 10 inches in diameter with an 18-inch stroke. The wheels are 4 feet in diameter. The boiler is 10 feet long by 3 feet 4 inches in diameter, and the working pressure was 40 pounds per square inch. The locomotive is now the property of the Corporation of Canterbury. It is coated with a special preservative paint.

#### THE TELESCOPE THAT FIRST PICKED UP HALLIDAY'S COMET

The large reflecting telescope illustrated herewith is interesting by reason of the fact that it was the first instrument to pick up Halley's comet on its present visit to our circle of the solar system. To be sure, the comet was discovered on photographic plates made with other telescopes before the photographic record made with the reflector here shown. But it was Prof. Max Wolf who first identified the comet on a photograph taken with this reflector at the Heidelberg Observatory. The discovery was made on September 1st, 220 days before perihelion. The Heidelberg reflector has a focal length of 818 feet, and the diameter of the mirror is 38 inches. The



THE TELESCOPE WITH WHICH HALLIDAY'S COMET WAS FIRST PICKED UP

mounting is thoroughly up-to-date, and is electrically controlled. The observation platform is adjustable vertically by means of an electric motor.

#### A NEW COMPETITOR OF THE HORSE

The "sebrau" has made its bow to the public. This creature is a new thing in the world, it never having existed until a year ago. It is the hybrid offspring of the African sebra and the Texas donkey. There are at the government experiment station at Henssden, Md., six young sebrau. Their sire is the royal Abyssinian sebra which King Menelik gave to



A VALUABLE HYBRID—A CROSS BETWEEN A SEBRA AND A DONKEY.

President Roosevelt. The latter turned the striped creature over to the experiment station, and here the idea of developing a new race of animals was conceived. These six young ones are the nucleus. They are regarded as offering great promise. Certain of them combine the docility, strength and utility of the mother with the spirit, activity and beauty of the father. The sebrau are already larger than their mother. They are beautifully built and should be adapted to the many uses to which the domestic animal is put.

#### TOUCHA CUTTER

A soldier in the Spanish and Philippine wars, who

had abundant experience in endeavoring to get through the wire entanglements of the Spanish trenches, has recently devised a very simple cutter which may be applied to the bayonet of the gun. A soldier in action will dismember himself of everything except his gun



WIRE-CUTTING ATTACHMENT FOR GUNS.

and bayonet, and hence the pillars which are usually furnished for cutting barb wire obstructions are frequently thrown away, so that the only method of getting through an entanglement when encountered is to hammer the wire with the bayonet and a soldier only in this process slow, but it is fatal in a galling fire. For this reason the inventor has devised a cutter which may be secured to the bayonet without interfering with the use of the gun and which will operate to sever the wire by a single thrust of the weapon. As shown in the illustration, the cutter consists of two jaws pivoted eccentrically so that when extending forward in their normal position they are closed, but when pushed back they close in operation, the gun is inverted, the point of the bayonet is rested on the wire, and then the gun is thrust forward with the bayonet sliding on the wire so as to guide the latter between the jaws of the cutter. As the jaws are thrust back they close upon the wire and sever it.

#### ROENTGENRAYS OF A FULLY DRESSED MAN.

The range of visible rays from deep red to violet forms a very small part of the solar spectrum. Beyond the red, the rays are too long to affect the retina, but we can detect them as heat. At the other end, we have the ultra-violet rays which are too short to affect the retina, but manifest themselves on the photographic plate. Roentgen rays are not found in sunlight, but if they were, and if our eyes were so constructed that they could detect only these rays, visible matter about us would take on a very different aspect from that to which we are accustomed. The accompanying illustration shows how a man would appear. The man appears semi-transparent and one can easily make out his two watches and chain, his tie clip and the buckle of his suspenders. The metal parts of the buttons on his coat are also quite evident, and his ribs may be plainly seen. A pickpocket might carry such power of discernment, but he would have difficulty in concealing his plunder if others were possessed of similar vision.

The photograph was taken instantaneously with a Snooks apparatus, and is reproduced from "Archives of the Roentgen Ray." Heretofore, it has required a long exposure to take a photograph with the Roentgen rays, but recently a system has been devised by which a very sudden and powerful discharge is produced capable of making an instantaneous photograph. This sudden discharge is made by using a tube in place of the interrupter of an induction coil. The tube is melted when the proper intensity of current is reached, producing a very sudden break of the primary and a powerful discharge of the secondary. Exposures of 1/100 to 1/120 of a second have thus been obtained.



ROENTGENRAYS OF A FULLY DRESSED MAN.

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We believe that when you buy a Chalmers "30" your \$1500 becomes worth more than \$1500 invested in any other car. Careful investigation will convince you of this fact.

Please remember you are not buying a *price* or an *advertisement*: you are not buying a *car*. Therefore examine the car on its merits.

If you investigate thoroughly a Chalmers will be your *first choice*, if you are able to get a delivery in your territory.

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the peck-like receptacle thus formed. His method of working resembles exactly that which has been detailed above. First the sharp-pointed beak is used to form a slit or hole in the leaf, and through this a piece of tough grass, or other vegetable fiber, is passed. A second hole is drawn, and the natural "thread" is drawn through it, and so on until the work is completed. By a touch of the beak the work is torn apart, and the user is enabled to take care to visit a museum, and make a mental comparison of stitches made by many avian tribes and those formed by the tailor. In fact, he will frequently discover that the latter are far less clumsy than the former. In a word it may be asserted with out fear of contradiction that mankind was not first in the field where the art of needle-work is concerned. The sewing needle is another of Nature's own contrivances.

The arts of spinning and weaving have also their prototypes in Nature. The majority of nest-building birds exhibit a certain degree of similarity in their method of construction. This instinct is most strongly developed in the case of a genus of finch-like birds indigenous to the warmer parts of the tropics, the *weavers* (*Ploceidae*). These birds spin fine threads so as to form their nests in strands and the combination of these into webs, are operations characteristic of many insects and some of the lower animals. We are now aware, however, that the weaver birds, like the spider, know, construct silken webs which they employ as a means of capturing their prey, or of protecting their egg-clusters from injurious intruders. The bird *Arremonops* (*Arremonops*), (*Arremonops*) (the motmot) that the spinning of silk has been brought to the highest state of perfection. Motmot, indeed, may be justly regarded as the most perfect of all the weavers under the guiding hand of Nature of this invaluable art. Take, for example, the cocoon of the well-known *Coccoloba* (*Coccoloba*), which is a bird of the tropics. It is entirely constructed of silk, which is secreted by glands in the mouth of the grub or caterpillar. As soon as the insect has completed its web, it spins a small cocoon, and then enters it to die. The cocoon, it is well to note, is not a mere case. It is a web, the formation of it costs the caterpillar labor and energy, and it is not until it is completed that the exact method of construction is strictly determined. We can now, therefore, have some idea as to describe it in detail. Suffice it to say that the caterpillar first constructs of silken threads a kind of scaffolding, or framework, and then, by means of this, spins a web, or cocoon, which is the actual nest. The cocoon is so tough and strong that the caterpillar cannot deposit its exuviae (silk threads) by means of a figure of eight movement of its head, as the spider does. The cocoon is so tough and strong that the caterpillar cannot deposit its exuviae (silk threads) by means of a figure of eight movement of its head, as the spider does. The cocoon is so tough and strong that the caterpillar cannot deposit its exuviae (silk threads) by means of a figure of eight movement of its head, as the spider does.

In passing, the reader may be reminded that many kinds of caterpillars contrive a kind of trap at the mouth of their cocoons similar in principle to those made by man for the capture of crabs, lobsters, and eels. Within the neck of the Emperor Moth's cocoon, for example, there is a conical arrangement of stout, bristly appendages which form a well-liked impenetrable barrier against the attacks of enemies which may attempt to force an entrance from without. Yet owing to the flexibility of these appendages, the fully-developed moth can push its way out of the cocoon with perfect ease. If the reader has followed this description carefully, he will perceive that the trap-like structure of the Emperor Moth's cocoon is the counterpart of the familiar lobster-pot—a device which is employed by fishermen in many parts of the world.

The writer is not aware whether Nature's contrivance of a box that cannot roll off a shelf has ever been put to practical use by mankind. It is obvious, however, that such a device might very well form the basis of more than one valuable invention. The principle may be studied by all those who are able to visit the rocky ledges used by sea fowl as breeding places—or, indeed, by those

(Continued on page 398)

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## FREE TO AGENTS

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# Don't Play with Fire

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STATEMENT JANUARY 1, 1910	
Capital, . . . . .	\$ 2,000,000.00
Liabilities, . . . . .	14,321,953.11
Assets, . . . . .	23,038,700.61
Surplus for Policy-holders, . . . . .	\$ 7,173,747.50

[illegible]











COMPLETION OF THE PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD EXTENSION AT NEW YORK

# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

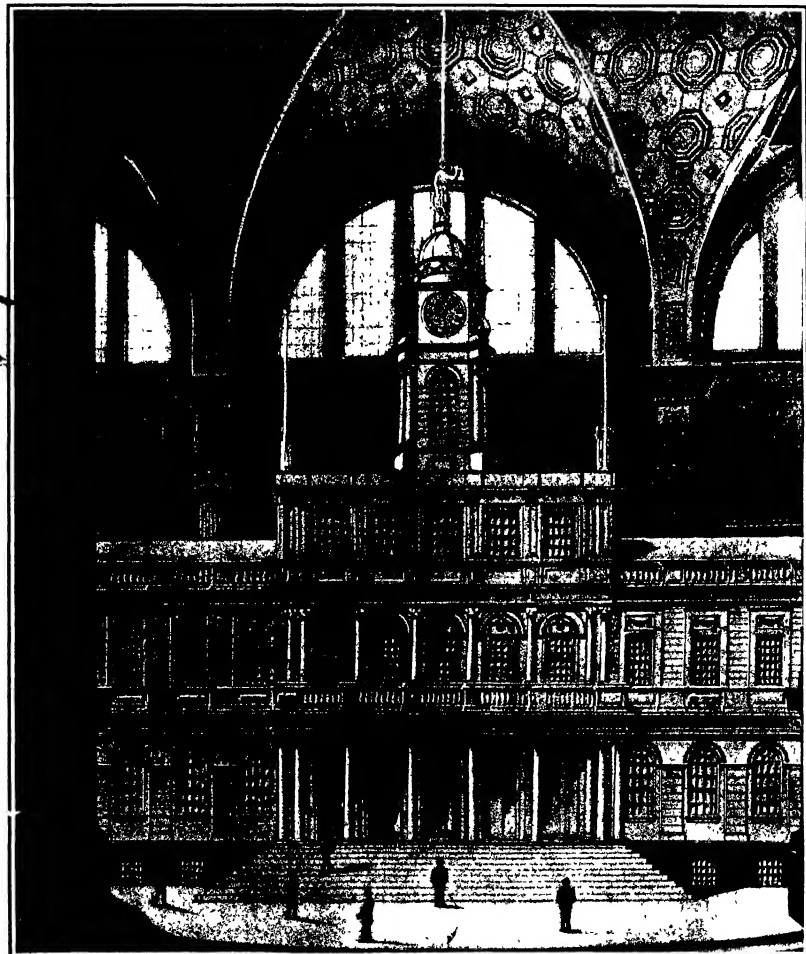
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Interior view of the magnificent waiting room which is so spacious that it could contain, bodily, the New York City Hall. The ceiling, 150 feet above the floor, would clear the flagpole by 10 feet.



## ENGINEERING.

The German estimate of aeronautical statistics for the year 1910 is that Germany will have fourteen dirigibles and five aeroplanes; France, seven dirigibles and twenty-nine aeroplanes; Italy, three dirigibles and eleven aeroplanes; Russia, three dirigibles and six aeroplanes; England, two machines and six balloons. The activity in military construction in the North West is unexampled for the construction of several important bridges across the larger rivers. A notable instance of this is the Columbia River bridge on the North Coast Railroad, the construction of which is the substructure of which will consist of twelve piers carrying a superstructure made up of nine Howe truss spans, and a draw span across the main channel.

A leading southern journal speaks words of wisdom when it says that the policy of every deep construction of battleships should be adhered to, even if it costs a trifle more than building in private yards. Keeping our leading navy yards busy with warship construction may just serve as a stimulus to private contractors, but it has the important effect of maintaining the navy yard forces intact, with a large body of skilled workmen ready at all times to undertake emergency work.

The loss of the Atlantic transport liner "Minnehaha" upon the much-dreaded rocks at the western end of the Betty Islands reminds us again that in spite of the additional safeguards which have been introduced in the construction of modern steamships, the perils of the sea are still insistent. The great success of the submarine belt on our Atlantic coast suggests that this device might be used to very good effect at the more dangerous points at the approaches to the British Isles.

Nobody seriously disputes the advantages of the "Pay-as-you-enter" car. Not the least among these is the reduction which it has made at least on certain lines, in the number of accidents. Such a claim is supported by the Chicago City Railway show that the complete introduction of this style of car on all trunk lines has resulted in a decrease of accidents of about thirty-two per cent, as compared with the number occurring during equal periods of service with the old style of cars which it replaced.

The building of railroads through mountainous country is continually necessitating some daring bridge construction. A recent instance is the new American viaduct which forms part of a new line extending by way of Demirli to the Turkish frontier. The structure which is 600 feet long and spans a gorge 320 feet deep, was in constant use and the new line from the other side of the gorge. The superstructure which is very graceful in design consists of latticed trusses carried upon two biplanar arches. The bridge is on a grade of about two per cent and the line is laid on a curve of four degrees.

Recent tests at Sandy Hook of the resisting power of reinforced concrete as a defense against high gun fire, projective conformed the calculations of the penetrating power of the twelve-inch gun. It is stated that a concrete wall twenty feet thick heavily reinforced with steel beams, was pierced by a twelve-inch projectile fired at high velocity. We understand that a similar attack is to be made with the new four-inch gun. The blow delivered was sufficient to penetrate twenty-two inches of armor plate and the reinforced concrete without the attack was what it will probably be used in the construction of the new coast defense fortifications in the Philippines.

The electric operation of trains through the Saint Clair tunnel is showing the same economies as compared with steam operation, as have been obtained in similar installations elsewhere. According to the Electric Railway Journal the cost of coal for one year under electric operation was only thirty-nine per cent of that for the last year of steam operation. The total service charges were thirty per cent of those for steam, and the sum of service and fixed charges was 84.5 per cent, which represents the operating expense of the now over the old service. The cost of maintenance and repairs for the electric system is fifty-five per cent of that under the same period.

Considerable interest has been aroused by the launch of the new torpedo-boat destroyer "Paulding" at the Bath Iron Works. She will be the first destroyer in our navy designed for the exclusive use of four funnels. For this, she is practically a sister vessel to the "Plunger" and the "Reid," and like them she will be driven by turbines, and must make a speed of 35 1/2 knots on a four hour run at sea. It is well known to correct the statement which recently went the round of the press, that the "Plunger" made 36 knots recently in the Gulf of Mexico. As a matter of fact, her speed on that occasion was between 30 and 32 knots. Her best speed was made on her acceptance trial when she steamed at an average speed of 33 1/2 knots. The fastest destroyer are the six destroyers of the British navy, which made on trial between 35 and 36 knots.

## ELECTRICITY.

The Rochester, N. Y., a good system of electric light and telephone wiring in its use, whereby single pole lines on the streets are done away with. The system is applicable chiefly to the residential districts. The lines are placed in underground conduits in the streets, but instead of making connections to the houses directly from the underground conduits, a pole line is strung in the back yards of each block and this pole line is connected to the conduits by an underground branch at each side street. This obviates the necessity of having a manhole in front of each house.

An application was recently made for a permit to lay conduits along the new Baltimore and Wilmington road. These are to form part of an underground trunk system connecting Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore and Washington. In which the Amcri can Telephone and Telegraph Company will run its lines. The conduits will be laid just below front lines and will contain a hundred wires which can be tapped at any point. It is stated that the system will serve as an auxiliary for the overhead wires which are already in place and are out of order by severe storms. It is expected that after the line connecting Boston and Washington is completed, the system will be extended West and South.

Storage battery locomotives are being used in certain mines of Germany. These locomotives are considered less dangerous than the ordinary electric locomotives for the reason that no wiring is necessary in the mine and they can be used in completely unventilated ignitions of gases by means of a chain supply. The locomotives are each provided with two sets of batteries one of which is being charged while the other is operating. In operation the locomotives are seldom more than two-thirds discharged so that the charging takes but a short time. In one type of locomotive of twenty horse-power the batteries contain ninety cells each with a capacity of 75 amperes hours. The storage battery locomotives range from 4 to 22 horse-power.

Whenever a cable message is sent to an inland city, it is necessary to transmit the message from the cable receiver and retransmit it to be hand over the land lines to its point of destination. Heretofore it has been impossible to send a message direct to the inland city by means of relay connecting with the overhead wires for the reason that the cable signals are of too fluctuating a character and too sensitive in operation to ordinary telegraph relay. Heretofore the system has been devised which promises to make direct connection between the cable and telegraph systems commercially practicable. A very sensitive relay is used and the character of the signal is changed so as to obviate the usual fluctuations. By means of this new system a cable message was recently sent from Cape Nova Scotia to New York a distance of 400 miles and here relayed to Chicago.

The installation of a complete telephone system for the stage of the New Theater in this city illustrates not only the variety of uses to which the telephone is put but also the vastness and complexity of the up-to-date stage. The stage telephone system has nine stations on the stage and twenty-five floor stations with two switchboards or central stations. Through these central stations inter-communication with the other stations may be had. From one of these central stations the stage director controls the operations of the stage hands, while the other board is the stage manager's station. The regular stations are placed in the prompter's booth, the electrician's booth, the stage manager's and one is located near the orchestra leader. Calls are made by operating push buttons in the prompter's booth and the other board is the stage manager's signal or to operate a buzzer, depending upon which of two buttons is pressed. The theater is also equipped with a telephone system used for carriage calls.

The Pennsylvania's tunnel and terminal signal station is the largest signal installation of its kind ever made in this country. While most people realize that signals play an important part in protecting train movements especially where traffic is congested, the importance made in these devices is far beyond the general understanding. Development in signaling in recent years has been tremendous and has proceeded chiefly along electrical lines. Complete signaling and the safety of the movement of trains are made possible by a large amount of electrical apparatus and the introduction of electrical propulsion complicates the situation. We are informed by the Korte Transient Wire and Cable Company, which supplied the material for the Pennsylvania Terminal that frequently the cost of electrical wires and cables is from 25 to 30 per cent of the entire cost of the installation. Not only from the standpoint of safety, but from that of reliability and economy of traffic it is necessary that the wires and cables controlling the intricate apparatus should be the best. Millions of feet of wire and cable conductors are being used in this installation.

## SCIENCE.

Prof. W. W. C. Mendenhall, director of the Lick Observatory, has taken a series of photographs of the spectrum of the bright nebula 114 which has been photographed in the spectrum of Italy's comet by Wright.

Prof. Charles Chandler was honored in New York City recently on his retirement in his fifth year of frigid service. A banquet was tendered him by the American Astoria hotel. The banquet was attended by many of New York's most distinguished scientists.

Commander Peary's arrival in England was attended with much ceremony. A regiment of engineers met him at Plymouth. Members of the Royal Geographical Society as well as the London Naval Association welcomed him to London. With Commander Peary in his first start, who accompanied him to the pole. A special gold medal was presented to Commander Peary by the Royal Geographical Society and a resolution in honor to him.

A letter dated May 1st 1910 has been received at Harvard Observatory from Prof. D. W. Mendenhall of Breake Observatory stating that: "The morning at 4 o'clock Italy's comet had a short bright light projecting toward the sun. Two bright rays bordered the outer part of this sector forming an angle with the sun of about 15 degrees. The prevailing color was much the brighter. The nucleus was surrounded on the sun side with distinct whitish sheaths. Mendenhall's observation of October 17th 1897 was widely recognized as a discovery. No longer is it considered a comet of 2 or 3 degrees in length."

The lowest atmospheric temperature ever observed, -88 deg. C. (-104.4 deg. F.) was recorded on January 15th 1886 at Werchne-Arktik in Eastern Siberia a little north of the Arctic Circle. No lower temperature than this has been experienced by man. Arctic or Antarctic expedition. A temperature of -50 deg. C. (-58 deg. F.) was observed in 1878 at 825, degrees north latitude and the lowest temperature observed by Nansen at 83 degrees north latitude was -51 deg. C. (-51.8 deg. F.). The assertion of Dr. Cook who claims to have observed a temperature of -94 deg. C. (-131.2 deg. F.) at 75 degrees north latitude in February 1908 cannot be accepted without reserve.

The United States Weather Bureau has issued instructions to all its regular stations calling for observations on the 17th 18th and 19th of May of any optical, electrical or meteorological phenomena which may be observed by the passage of the earth through the tail of Italy's comet. Up to date the development of the tail has been discontinuous and it was not extended so far as the earth was expected to meet it. It is so uncertain that it can hardly fail to make its presence manifest by disturbances in the atmosphere perceptible by the trained observer. If not by the layman, such phenomena as aurora, the appearance of an electrical sound of dust in the atmosphere, or the red spectrum, blue ring and the singular non-luminous clouds that were frequently observed after the eruption of Krakatoa are especially to be looked for.

A monograph bearing the title "Quality of Surface Waters in the United States" has been issued by the United States Geological Survey. The volume which is the work of H. B. Hale contains the results of over 5,000 chemical analyses of water from the principal rivers of the United States east of the Rocky Mountains. Daily samples of water from nearly 200 stations were collected for a year, until in July of ten consecutive samples from the same stream and station were obtained. The monograph contains a full description of the analytical methods used and the results of the analyses giving as they do the average composition from day to day and information regarding change of water level wherever available. From the results of the analysis it is possible to determine the quality of American rivers that has never been established. They are on an account particularly valuable to managers of industrial plants and water works.

During the past winter Prof. H. H. Henshaw of Strassburg, president of the International Committee on Scientific Atmosphere, has been engaged in meteorological observations with sounding balloons over the Atlantic Ocean in the region between Tenerife and the West Indies. The average altitude attained was 15,000 feet, the maximum being 17,000 feet, which is the record for such observations at sea. The lowest temperature yet measured over the sea was also attained 15,000 feet, 1,484 deg. F. During December 1st 1909 the temperature was 1,000 feet below over the Atlantic up to an average altitude of 5,000 meters. Immediately above this there was an unusually strong anticyclone which had at an altitude of 10,000 meters a temperature of 1,000 degrees. The latter wind had carried an enormous unit of warm air from the tropics to Europe and the unexpected strength of this current may have had something to do with the unusually mild winter that has prevailed over the continent. The barometer at layer was reached at an altitude of 16,000 meters, 17,000 to 5,000 meters higher than it occurs, on an average, over Europe.

# The Porhydrometer—An Apparatus for Weighing Ship Cargoes

BY THE ENGLISH CORRESPONDENT OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

An ingenious apparatus has been perfected by an Italian engineer, Signor Emilio de Lorenzi, the function of which is to indicate automatically the weight of a ship's cargo. This device, which is called the "Porhydrometer," is of simple construction and operation, and works with remarkable accuracy—the results being within 0.001 per cent. Moreover, it is easy of installation so that vessels already in service can be equipped therewith as readily as those in course of construction.

The operation of the instrument is based upon the principle that a body floating in a liquid no matter what its density may be displaces a quantity of that liquid exactly equal to its own weight. The apparatus comprises merely a float or "aerometer" placed in a chamber filled with water, which is in communication with the outside of the ship. Consequently, as the vessel sinks deeper into the water while being loaded or vice versa when the freight is being discharged, the level of the water in the float chamber must rise or fall in accordance with the level of the surrounding liquid outside. The float itself being fixed it becomes more or less deeply immersed in the water in the chamber with a consequent alteration in its apparent weight.

The aerometer is connected and balanced by levers so that by the adjustment of the balancing weights the volume of water displaced by the aerometer at any particular draught is accurately gauged the alteration in apparent weight being read on the weighing machine or recording instrument and therefrom the weight of any cargo taken on board or discharged is easily determined.

The principle of the apparatus may be more comprehensively realized by reference to the explanatory illustration which shows the midship section of a vessel with the porhydrometer in position. The float chamber *A* is placed vertically over the longitudinal and transverse center of the ship and extends from a point *1 1/2* ft. in 2 feet below the line of flotation when the vessel is empty to a convenient height above the load line. This chamber is connected to the surrounding liquid by means of a small valve *B* in the skin of the vessel, or to some other convenient sea water connection, a special tube being unnecessary so long as an uninterrupted flow of water to the float chamber can be secured. The level of the water in the float may be exactly as that outside the ship in the large float chamber *A* is immersed the aerometer *C* being suspended from, and balanced by a horizontal lever *D* having its fulcrum at *E*, the other end being connected to a standard weighing machine at *F*. The aerometer is generally made heavier than its displacement, but this is immaterial since it is in a condition of equilibrium. The float extends downward sufficiently to bring its lower end below the plane of flotation for light loading, and sufficiently far upward to bring its upper end above the plane for the maximum draught. Moreover, its profile is such that the area of the float at any point of cross section bears a constant ratio to the area of the ship at the same level.

As the vessel becomes immersed through the superimposition of any weight such as cargo, the draught increases and accordingly the water in the float chamber rises to a higher level, the aerometer itself consequently being immersed deeper into the water, and by increasing its displacement reduces its apparent weight as already mentioned. This difference of weight creates a downward pull on the opposing arm of the lever, where a counterweight remains unaltered. As the steel yard is connected to the main lever *D* by the rods or links the exact amount of tension is registered that is attributable to the disturbance of the balance on the main lever through the increased displacement.

The vital part of the invention lies in the aerometer. Alteration of trim or inclination of the vessel cannot by any means upset the accuracy of the instrument. It is in short an absolute gauge of the vessel's displacement. Should the cargo be placed right aft or forward it will be weighed exactly the same as

if placed near the center of the vessel, since the draught directly under the instrument is the mean of that fore and aft. The whole of the parts of the apparatus are standardized with the exception of the aerometer, which must be properly designed and carefully adjusted, its form being made to correspond with that of the ship.

Numerous tests with the apparatus have been carried out in England, and the accuracy of the weight readings, irrespective of the size of the vessel, have been remarkably conclusive. It can be applied to



Recording instrument of the porhydrometer.

any type of craft with equal facility and infallibility—to a small lighter as easily as to a transatlantic liner. At the present moment arrangements are being made for its installation upon a 10,000-ton vessel. In this case the diameter of the float will be about 9 inches. For a small lighter it averages about 3 1/2 inches diameter. It the top by about 2 1/2 inches at the lower extremity. So sensitive is the apparatus that it will indicate the weight of a person stepping on board.

Thus it will be seen that the captain of a vessel always possesses a means of determining exactly the weight he has on board. For those vessels engaged in long journeys, necessitating bunkering at intermediate ports, it is of far-reaching importance, since it enables the captain to ascertain precisely how much fuel he has shipped. This is a valuable point, inasmuch as at many foreign ports short weighing is by no means an unwelcome practice, and vessels are often mulcted for a considerable sum per annum in payments for misrepresented quantities of coal.

The function of the invention is also carried to a further and important feature. It will inform the captain the exact weight of water he has in his ballast tanks. Also, should the vessel spring a leak, the float is instantly communicated to the captain by the apparatus registering an increased weight or displacement due to filling with water. In cases of collision and grounding the incursion of water is similarly covered, the apparatus being equipped with an electric alarm bell, which conveys intimation of the danger to the captain. No discrepancies in the readings can be introduced by variations in the density of the water in which the vessel may be floating, for such cannot affect the fundamental principle upon which the apparatus works.

It will be seen that by the introduction of the apparatus the ship itself is practically converted into a huge weighing bridge. The Italian government submitted the invention to searching tests and was so convinced of the accuracy of the records that its customs authorities have been ordered to accept porhydrometer readings as correct. To the shipowner this is no slight concession, since in regard to Italy, instead of paying 45 cents per ton in weighing dues, vessels fitted with the porhydrometer only pay 15 cents per ton.

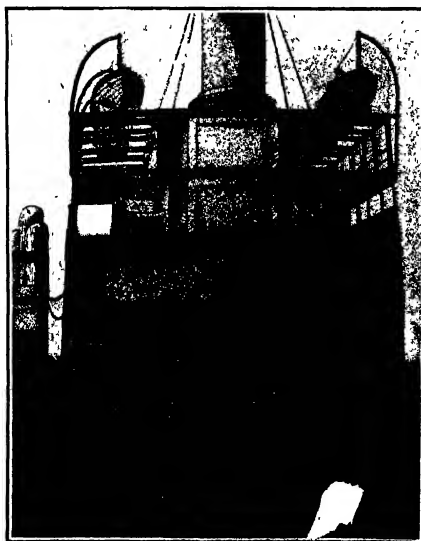
## Influence of Phase and Rotation upon the Brightness of Illuminated Spheres.

The total luminosity of the moon varies according to the proportion of illuminated hemisphere which is turned toward the earth, that is to say, in accordance with the "phase" of the satellite. Mercury and Venus show similar, but smaller differences of phase and brightness.

The exterior planets vary so little that the variation in their brightness is hardly perceptible. The brightness of planets can be measured by the astrophotometer, and the dependence of the brightness upon the phase can be expressed by a curve. As it seemed possible that some information in regard to the surface of the planets could be obtained from the study of such curves, Von Auwers has made a series of observations of the relation between brightness and phase in the case of illuminated masses of limestone, sandstone, granite, and other materials of spherical and other forms. The measurements of brightness were made with a photometer. The artificial planet was illuminated by a Nernst lamp, not directly, but by reflection from a plane sheet of glass, through which the object to be observed in the "full" phase. The lamp and the reflector were mounted on an arm which could be turned around the object in order to vary the phase.

When the results were plotted, the curves representing the brightness as a function of the phase were found to fall into two classes, according to the character of the material to which the globes were composed. Globes of light colored material gave curves concave below, while the curves produced by globes of darker material are concave above. Small elevations and depressions, glossy surfaces, etc., were found to produce comparatively little effect upon the curves, the character of which was, in general, determined almost entirely by the lightness or darkness of the surface. The curves produced by Venus and the moon are concave above. Hence it appears probable that the surfaces of these two planets are formed of dark colored material—fractureless.

In a recent issue of Nature the difficulty experienced in hot countries in keeping animal accumulations in working order is referred to, and it is pointed out that this is probably due to the cells being filled with dilute acid of density 1.00 at a temperature of 30 deg. or 35 deg. Cent. While this is a proper density to use in a climate where the temperature is 15 deg. to 20 deg. Cent., corresponding to a 20 per cent. mixture, it is too high for a hot climate, where it really represents a 32 per cent. mixture; a density of 1.170 or even 1.180 is more suitable.



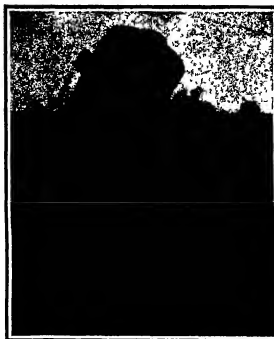
Sectional drawing of vessel, showing porhydrometer.  
THE PORHYDROMETER—AN APPARATUS FOR WEIGHING SHIP CARGOES.

THE NEW KIFFEL PHOTOGRAPHIC HELIOGRAPH.

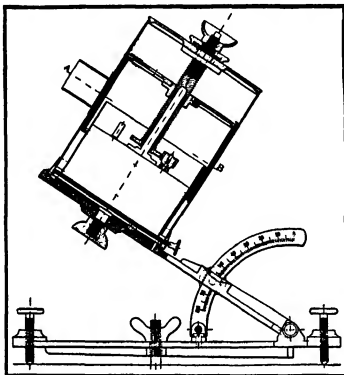
Daguer, in order to measure the luminosity of the sun's disk, allowed a beam of sunlight to enter a dark room through a small aperture, behind which a converging lens was placed. The diverging cone of rays, beyond the focus of the lens, was intercepted by a screen, forming a circle, the brightness of which was not too great to be measured by the ordinary methods. The brightness of the sun was assumed to bear the same ratio to that of the circle on the screen that the area of the circle bore to that of the aperture through which the light entered. At a later date (1844) Pissau and Foucault employed the photographic process which had just been discovered by Daguerre to compare the brightness of the sun with that of artificial sources of light. The quantity of light received by a unit of area of the solar image formed at the focus of a telescope is proportional to the clear aperture of the object glass. Pissau and Foucault received the image of the sun on an iodized plate of silver. In successive experiments they varied the aperture of the objective and regulated the duration of the exposure so that the final tint assumed by the plate and, therefore, the quantity of silver iodide decomposed, was the same in each case. In this way they proved that the required length of exposure, within certain limits, varied inversely in proportion to the aperture of the objective. In other words, the total chemical effect was found to be (within the range of exposure) proportional to the total quantity of light received by the image during the exposure. Then, by comparing the image of the sun with that of a circular area, of the same apparent diameter, of the positive carbon of an electric lamp, they proved that the chemical effect is proportional to the brightness of the source of light. This relation, however, did not appear to extend indefinitely, for the quantity of silver reduced, which was at first proportional to the length of the exposure, tended toward a fixed limit when the exposure was greatly prolonged.

In 1881 the great advance which had been made in photography enabled Hansen to employ very sensitive plates, in which the total chemical effect remained proportional to the duration of exposure within very wide limits. Jordan devised a heliograph in the form of a perforated cylindrical box containing a sheet of ferro-prussiate paper, and Richard constructed another instrument based on the photographic action of the solar rays.

Campbell, on the other hand, made use of the heating effect of the solar rays for the purpose of measuring the effective annual duration of sunlight, i. e., the aggregate time during which the sun is not veiled by clouds, a quantity which plays an important part in the processes of vegetation. Campbell's heliograph consists of a sphere of glass, mounted on a horizontal base, in a place exposed on every side, so that the sun is visible from its rising until its setting. A groove in the spherical mounting allows the intro-



THE KIFFEL PHOTOGRAPHIC HELIOGRAPH.



VERTICAL SECTION OF THE KIFFEL HELIOGRAPH.

duction of a strip of cardboard, which forms a circular arc at such a distance from the spherical glass lens that the image of the sun, formed by the lens, is

always on the strip. The cardboard is carbonized by the concentrated solar rays at the spot where the image is formed and, owing to apparent diurnal motion of the sun, a black line is traced on the card. If the sun shines all day without intermission this line is continuous but if the solar rays are intercepted by floating clouds the trace consists of a number of separate portions, the positions and lengths of which show when and how long the sun has shone. The apparatus is easily set up. It is necessary only to level the base, to place the noon line, marked XII on the card, opposite a fixed mark on the frame and to set the instrument so that the sun's image falls exactly on this line at the instant of true noon. In the improved form of the instrument designed by Kiffel the frame has three grooves, at different heights, in which three sorts of cards are placed. The shortest cards are placed in the highest groove and are used between November 5th and February 5th, the longest cards are placed in the lowest groove and are used between May 5th and August 5th, while the cards of intermediate length are placed in the middle groove and are used during the remainder of the year.

Kiffel has recently invented a photographic recording heliograph which has been used for some time at the central meteorological bureau of France and at the Juvicy observatory. It consists of a cylinder which is mounted on a shaft parallel to the earth's axis, and is turned by clockwork at the rate of one revolution in twenty-four hours. The sun's rays enter the cylinder through an aperture in its convex surface which is surrounded by a hood for the exclusion of diffused light. An inner cylinder, covered with photographic paper, is supported by a nut which can move along the shaft of the outer cylinder, which shaft bears a screw thread. A guide, attached to the race of the clock work, prevents the inner cylinder from rotating. Hence as the outer cylinder turns, the inner cylinder is compelled, by the screw, nut and guide to move along the shaft without rotating. The photographic paper is surrounded by a screen, which has various degrees of transparency in its various parts corresponding to the average intensity of sunlight at different hours and seasons. As the outer cylinder rotates, its aperture is always directed approximately toward the sun and in consequence of the motions of the two cylinders, the entering pencil of light traces a helioidal line on the paper which is wide enough to serve for a number of days. No new conclusions can be drawn from the photographic records made by the Kiffel heliograph until after the instrument has been in continuous operation for several years.

GARDIN PROCESS OF PHOTO-SCULPTURE.

The idea of employing photography as an aid to sculpture soon followed the invention of the daguerotype. Fifty years ago Will one devised a process in which the sculptor's model was photographed simultaneously by twenty four



Fig. 2.—Gardin's apparatus for photographing the object from the front, back, and sideways with a single camera.

Fig. 1.—Gardin's apparatus for modeling from four photographs.

THE GARDIN PROCESS OF PHOTO-SCULPTURE.





# Wireless Telegraph Apparatus for Contestants of the Glidden Tour

BY RENÉ HOMER

In the district selected for the annual Glidden tour this year, ordinary telegraph communication will be very difficult, and at times impossible. In 1909, although the tour passed through a comparatively well-settled country, the whereabouts of several of the contestants were often unknown for hours. One car, for instance, failed to report at the night control, and no one knew what had happened until the next morning. On another occasion a passenger was injured in an

and Manhattan Life towers and another wireless station at Newark, N. J. Later, communication was maintained between a car on the New Jersey highway near Trenton to the "sparkless" wireless station on the Land Title Building at Philadelphia, nearly thirty miles away.

The receiving station for running automobiles comprised a 7-foot aerial in connection, through a loose coupling, with a variable and a fixed condenser, a detector of the audion type, telephone receivers, and a high and low voltage battery. The sending set comprised two storage cells, a 16-inch spark coil, two Leyden jars, and a 1½-inch "radiophone" discharger similar to those used at the Metropolitan and Manhattan Life stations. This apparatus, which worked successfully up to three miles, the farthest distance tried, would probably operate for several miles farther. The ground was secured by drawing between the rear wheels a bicycle timing frame supported on four small wheels mounted on roller bearings; the middle space being occupied by three 8-inch steel wheels with slide bearings arranged so as to allow the weight of the wheels to keep them in contact at all times with the road. On the macadamized roads of the park this system of grounding worked fairly well, although on the sandy roads of New Jersey, where the subsequent tests were made, a great deal of difficulty was experienced in properly maintaining the ground. The spraying of water over the contact wheels by means of a small rubber tube leading up into the car partially overcame this trouble, and no doubt subsequent experiments will provide a suitable way of securing a satisfactory ground contact, although it is true that probably for some time to come the speed of moving cars must be considerably limited for successful wireless work. The cars in the tests ran only about ten miles an hour.

Field stations which can be put up in five minutes can be operated more successfully and the same apparatus used in the automobile by stopping the machine and securing proper ground has a range of about ten miles. The sending circuit of the field stations used in the longer distance tests was the same as that of the moving stations with the exception that three storage cells instead of two were used, and another 16-inch spark coil was connected in parallel with the first coil, so as to be operated from the same key. This gave a range of about fifty miles.

The field sending station was provided with a 100-foot aerial secured at one end to a spreader attached to a 48-foot bamboo telescope mast and hauled down diagonally to the top of a 12-foot mast about 90 feet away and thence back to the wireless apparatus about midway between the two poles.

Two of the photographs show the first successful test, in which a 35-foot aerial and a 6-inch spark coil actuated by one storage cell were used. With this apparatus, from Central Park, communication could be held with the laboratory at 42nd Street, about one and one-half to two miles away.

In the more recent tests additional condensers, storage cells, and audion receiving accessories were used. The closer view shows a radio detector in use (top of the box to left) while a periton detector is shown unconnected on the table in front of the other apparatus. The box upon which the operator is sitting con-

tains the interrupter, spark coil, and discharger, which are inclosed on account of their delicate nature and because they have not yet been protected by patent in the newer station all this apparatus is carried in the automobile, and there is no necessity for setting up the apparatus on the ground although the soap box does indeed make an admirable table for a wireless station.

In the coming tour it is proposed to send two scout



Bamboo aerial set up in car.

accident, and nothing was known of the matter until it was reported by a belated tourist at the night check ing in. Many minor difficulties were responsible for considerable delay that could have been prevented if the cars had been in communication with the last control.

The Chalmers-Detroit Company propose to keep in touch with the contestants by means of wireless (long range). Complete plans have not been worked out yet, but it seems probable that some such scheme as the use of three field wireless stations will be favored, two of the stations carrying on communication, one of them being in touch with the wire system, while the third station is being established at some advantageous point ahead of the contestants. The exact details of the plan will be furnished after a trial car has had a chance to go over the worst portions of the proposed route.

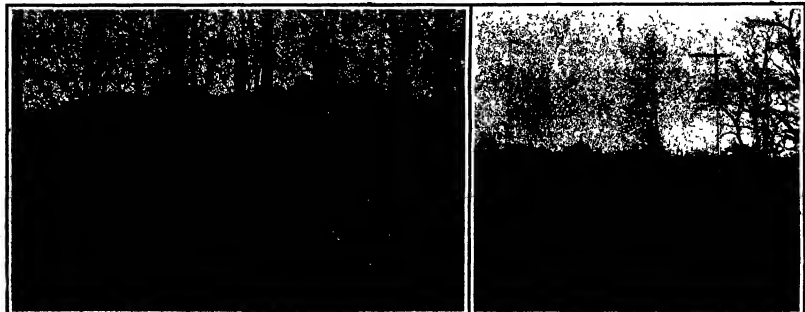
In the early part of March successful wireless telegraph tests were made for the Chalmers-Detroit Company between one of its cars in Central Park, New York, and the old Terminal Building at Park Avenue and 42nd Street. The distance varied from one and one-half to three miles in the trial from a moving car, while the experiments with the portable field stations showed that this type of apparatus at least would be able to carry on certain communication up to fifty miles, as the field station was able to keep in communication without any trouble with the Metropolitan



Automobile wireless equipment.

cars ahead of the regular contestants, each one of which will carry the complete field set of even greater range than that which every car can carry. Points where the telegraphic facilities are poor or impossible will be picked out and the two cars will arrange to be at stations at these points just ahead of the pilot car one station being equipped for business while the other is taking care of the telegraphic business of the tour. In this way one of the two field stations will be in operation all the time, while the other is being set up at the next point along the route.

Disastrous as the floods in France have proved for the railways, a worse disaster occurred one day last winter in America. Three days previously a warm wind arose in the State of Nevada so suddenly as to melt all the snow. The result was such a torrent as to entirely wash away 100 miles of the San Pedro, Los Angeles and Salt Lake line south of Caliente. The route of this line was known to be rather liable to this, but was chosen as it saved much distance. Soon after its construction it was undermined by a storm, which did over \$500,000 damage to it. The engineers are now engaged in surveying the district in order to find a safer (if longer and most costly) route. Which ever route be chosen, it will be from six months to a year before the line can be built and the cost will, it is said, be from ten to fifteen million dollars.



The automobile equipment with the aerial and wireless apparatus.

Receiving wireless messages from an automobile.

WIRELESS TELEGRAPH APPARATUS FOR CONTESTANTS OF THE GLIDDEN TOUR.



The practical success achieved with the gasoline-propelled motor sleds on the Shackleton and Charcot polar expeditions has prompted Capt. Scott to include a vehicle of this type for his forthcoming dash to the south pole. This vehicle is, however, distinctly different from the motor sleds hitherto used. In the two previous cases the front of the car was mounted on runners or skates, a chain and sprocket with spuds which gripped the snow and ice being fitted at the position occupied by the wheels in the ordinary motor car. In the new sled, however, what may be termed an adaptation of the pedrail or caterpillar system has been resorted to, which imparts a greater degree of efficiency to the vehicle, and enables

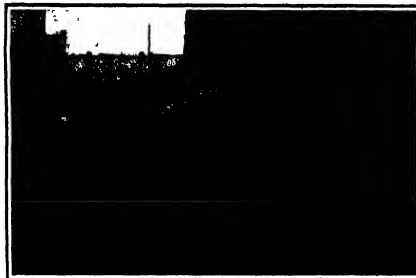
it to surmount obstacles and to travel over rough ice and snow with ease. In view of the conditions prevailing and the work it is intended to fulfill in the south polar regions, the engine is of a special type. It comprises four vertical cylinders, cast in pairs, and developing twelve brake horse-power.

The sled is fitted with a runner, upon which bear the rollers of the chain. The latter passing between this runner and the ground supports the whole vehicle and propels it as the wheels revolve. There are no brakes provided, as the big reduction ratio of the worm renders it completely irreversible, so that brakes are not necessary. Similarly, steering gear is dispensed with, as such is not requisite, for in any open

area such as an ice field steering is not demanded. When it is required to deviate to the right or left ropes attached to the front of the frame can perform this function. Turning sharp corners, under these circumstances, is admittedly exceedingly difficult, but when working in its designed sphere this drawback will not be serious, as sharp turning can be generally avoided.

The sled has a substantial wooden frame, and underneath is fitted a large undershield extending from end to end so as to present a perfectly smooth surface to the snow. When the sled is under way a curious fact is observable. The chain, where it

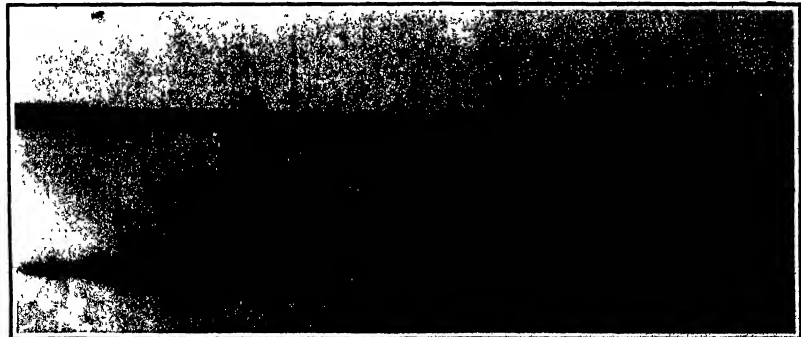
(Continued on page 407.)



Pedrail motor sled which Capt. Scott will use on his forthcoming antarctic expedition.



Capt. Scott's traction sled undergoing its tests in Norway.



A Swedish motor traction sled with a maximum speed of 34 miles an hour.

TWO MOTOR MOTOR SLED.

# THE FLIGHT FROM LONDON TO MANCHESTER

THE AVIATORS' OWN ACCOUNTS

Both White and Paulhan have furnished the London Daily Mail with accounts of their remarkable flight. White rose at 1.30 A. M. Twenty-four minutes later he was in the air. It was so dark that people were groping about with lanterns.

"As I stood by the side of my aeroplane," White states, "there was utter blackness facing me, faintly relieved in the distance by two or three twinkling lights, which I knew to be those of Road station."

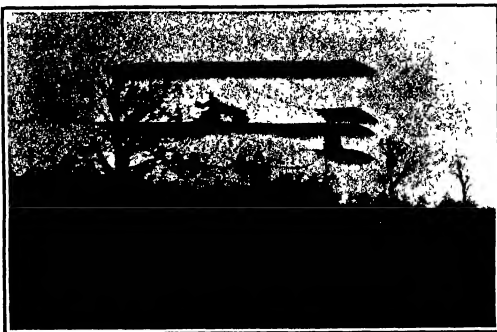
"My start was a confused jumble of scattering lights, which swept away swiftly below me. I could not judge my run along the ground, but I rose as speedily as possible. Directly I was in the air the lights of the railway station showed clearly below me, and I headed toward them. I could see absolutely nothing of the ground below me. It was all a black amorphous mass."

"I went right over the railway station lights and then, fortunately only for a second or so, my engine missed fire and I began to sink toward the busy darkness below me. I could have picked no landing, and it would have been a swift, steep glide to I know not what. And then, to my joy, my engine picked up again and I rose once more."

"Great difficulty presented itself in knowing in the darkness whether I was ascending or not. I had done no night flying before, but I soon became accustomed to watching closely the movements of my elevating plane, which was illuminated before me against the sky."

"I steered on for a spell with nothing at all to guide me. After leaving the lights of Road, behind, the gleam from an occasional signal box far below helped me, however, and so I picked my way through the night to Hilworth."

"Here I felt surer of my ground and bore away to



Grahame White leaving Rugby.

few of till I was over the train. I saw the lights of Rugby few over the town, and forged ahead.

"Daylight began to come now, and from here on to the point of my descent in a field near Poleworth my struggle was not with the darkness, but with the wind

Not a moment's rest came to me in my battle against the gale.

"Glance at my altitude chart and you will see that I made rises and dips of as much as 120 feet always with the object of flying in the shallowest level of air I could find."

"After the start I was going north for a long time before I sighted the special train which was accompanying me, but there was no mistaking it when it caught me up, with three loud toots of the whistle and a big white signal cloth flowing from the window of the rear coach."

"It looked like a handkerchief from such a height, but it told me all. I could see that things were going well. The wind whistled and so did I."

"I flew until it was quite dark. All I could make out beneath me was the smoke of the train once in a while and the occasional flicker of lights from a village."

"I came down rapidly from 300 meters to 100, so that I could be more certain of my direction. Then came the most exciting moment of my flight. Darkness had fallen and before me I saw the lights of Lichfield. I decided to alight in some convenient meadow before reaching the town and to do this I sank down to 150 feet. I was immediately above what looked like a large factory with a chimney. I am now told it was a brewery. And so, to alight safely in a field with no damage done, I made a hushhook turn, and my machine was now pointing toward London."

"Suddenly my motor stopped. Every drop of petrol had been exhausted and the machine swooped down ward almost like a stone dropping."

"What should I do? Beneath me was the brewery."



White's aeroplane after landing.

the left for Weedon. Faint lights shone here and there. Some, no doubt, were cottage windows and others, I think, were the head lights of motor-cars. I passed over Weedon, my eyes becoming more accustomed to the darkness.

"On I flew. The weirdness of the sensation can scarcely be described. I was alone in the darkness, with the roar of my engine in my ears. As I glanced back small bright flashes of light, the discharge of the exhaust gases from the motor, flashed out in the night."

"Then I lost my way, with no railway lights to guide me, for a spell. I steered off to the right. I wheeled and turned, wondering what I should do, but then a light to my left caught my eye, and I worked my way back to the railway line again."

"At a little inn by the roadside near the village of Crick a friend had promised to draw up his motor car, shining its headlights upon the wall to act as a guide for me. I was keenly on the lookout for this unmistakable light sign, and, sure enough, I saw it quite distinctly below me soon after I left Weston station behind."

"I deviated a little from my course and landed on this patch of light. I saw the motor car hovering as I approached, with its headlights throwing a great path of light down the roadway. It set off at a break-neck pace, its driver evidently meaning to guide me on my way."

"Leaving the railway line on my left, I followed the light of the motor car, and for a mile or so I hovered almost directly above it, allowing it to act as my pilot. But while I was doing so I chanced to glance over to the left and saw. Coming down the railway line I spotted a goods train. It was making for Rugby."

"This, I thought, will be a splendid guide, and so I swung over from the lights of the motor car and

It was the Servo gasts which eventually brought me down."

Paulhan, too, seems to have been troubled by the winds, for he bears out White's account. He writes: "I had to fight the wind all the way from London.



Recharging the gasoline tank of White's machine.

THE FLIGHT FROM LONDON TO MANCHESTER.

and a certain smash, behind me was a narrow field, which was almost like a spider's web with its mesh of telegraph wires.

"I had an imperceptible fraction of a second in which to make up my mind, and I decided to risk the telegraph wires. As I took I made a sharp twist right back on the line of my course, and was lucky enough to lift myself over the wires.

"I went to bed at 1 o'clock deciding to start again as soon as it was light, or even a little earlier. I slept like a top for five hours.

"It was still dark when I reached the narrow meadow beside the Trent Valley station in which my machine was lying. My mechanics had worked well during the night. The machine was charged with petrol and air was all ready for the start.

"Happily, favored with the head-wind I was then facing through it was a following wind for my flight. I rose without difficulty, turned, and headed straight for Manchester.

"Here was the end of my career about the issue of the race. Barring accidents, I was bound now to reach Manchester in safety and in good time, and there was no reason to anticipate accident, for I had surmounted the worst of the difficulties—that of a rise from a narrow field only 120 yards long where dim lanterns which were my only indications as to the whereabouts of the bedges.

"As soon as I got up I made a circle, followed the railway, and then set off for Crews, fighting all the way against gusts of wind. No certain did I feel of the road that I did not trouble to take my map on the

recession, northwest, total movement, 5,169 miles; average hourly velocity, 22.7, maximum velocity, 44 miles per hour. Weather. Clear days, 7, partly cloudy, 18; cloudy, 10, on which 0.01 or more of precipitation occurred, 11. Mean relative humidity, 68.1. Dense fog, 4th and 10th. Thunderstorms, 6th and 26th. Frosts. Light, 14th, heavy, 18th.

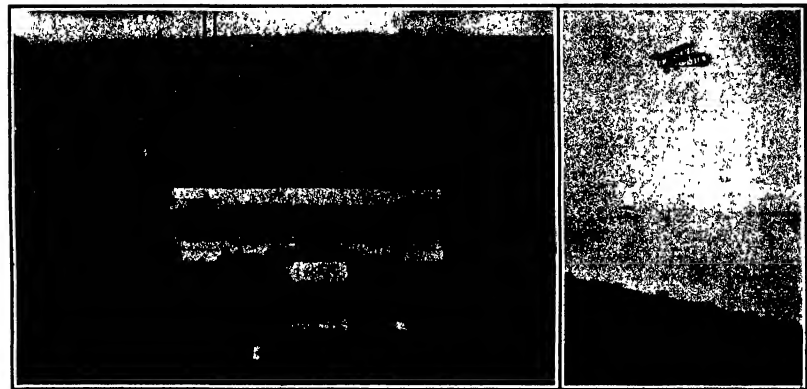
#### COMPLETION OF THE PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD TUNNELS AND TERMINAL STATION.

As late as the year 1901 the Pennsylvania Railroad was employing ferries to land its passengers in New York city just as it did in 1871, when it first joined the United Railroads of New Jersey. Ten years ago the system was hauling freight to Eastern cities over practically the same heavy grades as were to be encountered in 1871. To-day the company is completing a monumental improvement in and around New York city which will enable passengers to travel from eastern, western and Long Island points direct into Manhattan Island, arriving at a railroad station which, for convenience and for the beauty and dignity of its architectural appearance, probably outranks any similar building in existence.

During the past ten years the company has spent an enormous sum of money in straightening out its line to the East, and in cutting down grades, and in a few months' time freight trains which are already traveling over the new line, on which they encounter no grades greater than twelve feet to the mile, will be run direct to large terminal wharves on the New Jersey shore of upper New York Bay, and for

the original street surface, extend from Ninth Avenue to Seventh Avenue. From Tenth to Ninth Avenue the yard occupies more than the area of a city block, and from Ninth Avenue to Seventh Avenue the huge excavation covers the whole width between Thirty-first and Thirty-third Streets. The excavation covers therefore over five of the largest city blocks, and it involved the removal of over 5,000,000 cubic yards of material. Proceeding easterly from the terminal yard, the tracks, four in number, are carried below Thirty-second and Thirty-third Streets to the East River, under which they pass in four separate tubes. The grade descending to the river is 1.5 per cent, and the ascending grade to Long Island are 0.7 and 1.32 per cent.

The new terminal station located between Thirty-first and Thirty-third Streets, and Seventh and Eighth Avenues, is a truly magnificent structure, built of granite on classical lines. The terminal work was carried out under Mr. George Gibbs as chief engineer, to whom we are indebted for courtesies during the preparation of the present article. The main entrance to the station, on Seventh Avenue, leads through an arcade forty-five feet wide by two hundred and twenty-five feet long, to the main waiting room, which, with its width of 105 feet and length of 277 feet, and clear height of 150 feet, ranks as the largest in the world. Just what these dimensions mean is shown by our front page engraving, which portrays the central portion of the New York City Hall with its tower, standing on the floor of the waiting room, with the top of its flag pole failing to reach the roof by fully ten feet.



The crowd on Wornout Horseback awaiting White's start.

Finishes in full flight.

#### THE FLIGHT FROM LONDON TO MANCHESTER.

second stage of the journey. This was a mistake, for after leaving Crews I thought the first station marked my landing place, but I could discover none of the marks I expected to find there, and I had to circle back toward London before I picked up the whitebaited marks on aspen which directed me onward.

"I made yet another mistake in my route, and had to curve in yet another circle backward, but at last I saw the new station at Burnage, which was my objective, and I saw the white marks in the field where I was to land.

"I landed and I knew I had won. All the way from London it had been a fight between me and a pursuing wind, and I had beaten the wind."

Official Meteorological Summary, New York, N. Y., April, 1910.

Atmospheric pressure. Highest, 30.88, lowest, 29.57, mean, 29.93. Temperature. Highest, 73, date, 30th, lowest, 24, date 8th, mean of warmest day, 64, date, 15th, coldest day, 41, date, 8th; mean of maximum for the month, 62.1, mean of minimum, 48.8, absolute maximum, 84.0, normal (81), daily excess compared with the mean of 40 years, 59. Warmest mean temperature of April, 64. In 1871 and 1910, coldest mean 41, In 1874. Absolute maximum and minimum of April for 40 years, 82 and 20. Average daily excess since January 1st 47. Precipitation (43.8, greatest in 24 hours, 2.25, date, 26th and 26th, average for April for 40 years 1.30. Excess above normal 1.27. Accumulated excess since January 1st, 0.14. Greatest precipitation, 7.02 1874, least, 1.90, in 1881. Wind. Prevailing di-

rected across to Bay Ridge, Long Island. The company is about to construct a four-track arch bridge across the East River near Hell Gate, and when this is completed trains will be run through Long Island from Bay Ridge to Port Morris, where connections will be made with the New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad. Passengers from the South, Southwest, and West, over the Pennsylvania Railroad system, by way of the North River and East River tunnels and the Hell Gate bridge, will be enabled to travel without change of cars between New England and the West by way of New York City. These stupendous works, which will have cost in the aggregate, including the revision of the western line, over \$150,000,000, were conceived mainly during the administration of the late A. J. Cassatt, former president of the company.

Commencing at the western end of the New York tunnel system, we find at Harrison, New Jersey, a huge terminal and transfer station, where passenger trains from the South and West drop their steam locomotives, and the electric locomotives, which haul them into New York city, are coupled on. The tracks run on a high embankment across the Hackensack meadows to Bergen Hill, where they enter the western portal of the twin tunnels. They descend on a grade of 1.8 per cent to a level about 100 feet below mean high water of the Hudson River, which level is reached about one-third of the distance from the Jersey shore. The line then rises on grades of 0.5 and 1.83 per cent until the station yard is reached at Ninth Avenue. The yard and the station, which have been excavated to an average depth of 85 feet below

Opening out from this room are two smaller waiting rooms, each 68 by 100 feet, which are provided with the usual retiring rooms. On the same level also is the main baggage room, 450 feet in length. The baggage is brought in, and carried away, through a special subway, the trunks, etc., being delivered to the track below by motor trucks and elevators. Passing through the main waiting room, the traveler will find himself on a vast concourse 210 feet wide, which extends the full width of the station and parallel with the large waiting room. From the concourse, stairs lead down to the train platforms on the track level below, which is forty feet below the street surface. The concourse, which is 340 feet long, is covered by a lofty roof of light steel columns and trusses and glass. Between the concourse and the tracks is a sub-concourse, sixty feet in width, which will be used for outgoing passengers only.

The Thirty-third Street side of the station will be devoted to the Long Island Railroad service. It will be provided with its own entrances and exits, and the traffic will be handled independently of the western traffic.

In the design of the exterior of the station, the architects, McKim, Mead & White, endeavored to give to the building the character of a monumental entrance to this commercial metropolis of the country, which would at the same time conform to the traditional aspect of a great railway terminal. Also the station was designed to give as true a circulation as possible for the many millions that will annually pass through it. The main facade on Seventh Avenue is

composed of a Roman Doric colonnade, with columns four feet six inches in diameter and thirty-five feet high. Allowing for its much greater scale, the main entrance is comparable to the Brandenburg gate in Berlin. The main body of the building is about the same height as the Bourse of Paris, reaching, as it does, seventy-six feet above the street level. The main entrance on Thirty-second Street is at the corner of this facade, and at each corner is a sixty-three-foot wide carriage drive, fronted by double columns and pediments. Midway along the Thirty-first and Thirty-third Street sides of the building are similar columns and entrances to that on Seventh Avenue.

The passenger station building, which is 784 feet long by 430 feet wide, covers some eight acres of ground, and the construction of the exterior walls, which are nearly half a mile in length, required nearly half a million cubic yards of pink granite. This and other stone work in the building ran up to a total of 47,000 tons, and to transport it from Milford, Mass., called for the service of 1,140 freight cars. Into the construction of the building there has also entered 37,000 tons of steel and 48,000 tons of brick.

The station dimensions and quantities of material are of such interest that we present the following from among those supplied by the railway company.

Area (10th Avenue to aerial tunnel)	
- section east of 7th Avenue	28 acres
Length of trackway	18 miles
Number of standing tracks at station	11
Number of passenger platforms	11
Total excavation required	3,000,000 cubic yards
Length of retaining walls	7,800 feet
Number of lineal feet of streets and avenues carried on bridges	4,400, or an area of about 8 acres.
Concrete required for retaining walls	
- foundations, street bridging and sub-structures	160,000 cubic yards
Number of columns supporting station building	800
Greatest weight on one column	1,658 tons
Number of buildings removed on terminal area, about	500
Water capacity of service power plant estimate	5,000 horse power
Actual length of tunnel (2-track), Jersey City to Long Island	5.5 miles

After passing under the East River the four tubes reach Sunnyside Yard, the terminus of the Long Island tunnel extension, which covers some 158 acres

of land. It contains 73 miles of track, and has a capacity of 1,950 cars. From the Sunnyside yard there are tracks leading to the New York connecting railroad, which will form a junction with the New Haven Railroad at Port Morris.

An important feature of the New York tunnel extension is its relation to the Long Island Railroad, which is subsidiary to the Pennsylvania system. It is estimated that forty minutes will be saved between Long Island points and New York city by the operation of trains through the East River tunnels to the Pennsylvania station at Thirty-third Street.

The construction of the tubes beneath the Hudson and the East rivers has been so fully described in previous issues that it will be sufficient here merely to recapitulate the principal features of this work. The tubes under the Hudson River were driven by a special shield designed by Charles M. Jacobs, who is also well known as the chief engineer of the four Hudson River tubes which were simultaneously being driven for the Hudson Company's system of rapid transit tunnels. Contract for the North River tunnels was let to the O'Rourke Engineering and Construction Company. The shields were thrust forward by twenty-four rams capable of exerting a pressure of 3,400 tons. At first, the silt and other material were removed through the doors in the front of the shield, latterly, however, the shields were pushed bodily through the material, and only about one-third of it was removed through the tunnel, being admitted through the doors in its lower face. The cast-iron lining of the tunnel is twenty-three feet interior diameter. The interior is lined with two feet of concrete making the finished interior diameter of the tunnel nineteen feet. The weight of the cast-iron lining, with bolts, is from 9,609 to 13,127 pounds per linear foot of tunnel. The weight of the finished tunnel with the heavier lining, when concreted up and equipped, is 31,499 pounds per linear foot. The weight of the silt displaced, per linear foot of tunnel, is 13,648 pounds. The weight of the tunnel with the maximum train load is 41,868 pounds per linear foot.

Thanks to the very able and efficient engineering staff, the excellence of the contractors' equipment, and the harmony with which all concerned entered into the task of driving these tunnels, the work was carried through practically without a hitch, and considerably faster than the most sanguine expectations

The driving of the tunnels beneath the East River, which was in charge of Alfred Noble, Past President of the American Society of Civil Engineers, was done by S. Pearson & Son, the contractors, of London. Because of the great variety and difficult nature of the material through which the tubes passed, much trouble was experienced at various times with blowouts, but ultimately these difficulties were mastered and the tubes pushed through to successful completion.

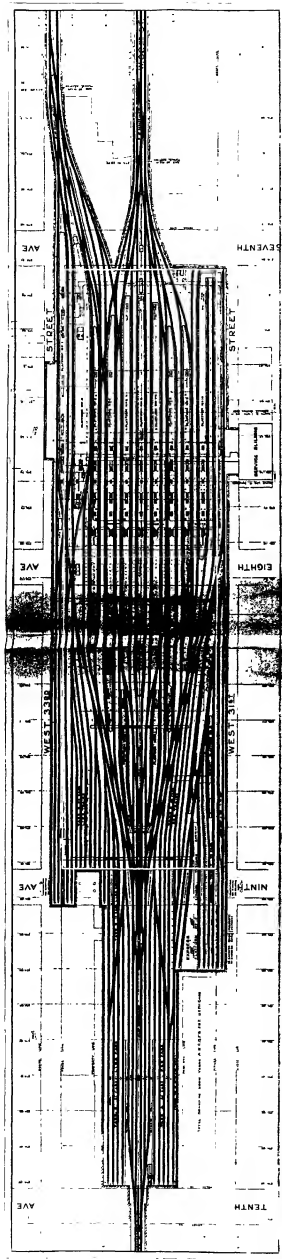
In addition to the many millions the Pennsylvania Railroad is spending on the four tunnels under the East River, and the station and terminal in Manhattan, all of which will greatly benefit Long Island, the Long Island Railroad is increasing its own facilities in all directions, so as to adequately care for the larger traffic which will result from the completion of the tunnels. The contemplated works will necessitate an expenditure on the Long Island system of more than thirty million dollars. The new service will include a six track line from the mouth of the tunnels to Woodside, 2½ miles, one mile of 6-track road, Woodside to Winfield, two miles of 6-track road, Winfield to Glendale cut-off, and 4½ miles of 4-track road thence to Jamaica. Trains will run from Thirty-third Street, Manhattan, to Jamaica in 18 minutes, to Garden City in 34 minutes, to Mineola in 34 minutes; to Far Rockaway in 33 minutes, to Flushing in 16 minutes, and to Great Neck in 28 minutes.

We will close by giving some of the startling statistics of population which in the judgment of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company fully warranted the enormous outlay involved in the great works which the company has undertaken. The population included within a circle of nineteen miles drawn from the City Hall in Manhattan as a center, was in 1890 3,338,998, in 1900 it had increased to 4,612,153 and in 1905 it had grown to 5,404,858. It is estimated that by 1915 the population of this territory will be about 6,000,000 people, and in 1920, 6,000,000. The railroads that have their termini on the western bank of the Hudson River carried nearly 59,000,000 people in 1886. In 1890 they carried over 72,000,000, in 1896 more than 84,000,000, and in 1906 they carried about 140,000,000 people. The significance of these figures was fully considered by the Pennsylvania Railroad, and the vast works they have undertaken are thought to be fully justified by the present and prospective growth of travel within the areas affected.

From this waiting room (3rd floor by 3rd floor) the passengers enter the concourse (3rd floor by 3rd floor) from which they descend by stairways to the arrival and departure platforms below.

Interior view showing the concourse and the station platforms.

COMPLETION OF THE PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD TUNNELS AND TERMINAL STATION.



PLAN OF THE HOOK SUB-SURFACE STATION YARD OF THE PENNSYLVANIA TERMINAL, MANHATTAN ISLAND



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE HOOK SUB-SURFACE STATION YARD OF THE PENNSYLVANIA TERMINAL, MANHATTAN ISLAND



squaring Put in the benders and sills for the windows and the studs immediately under them.

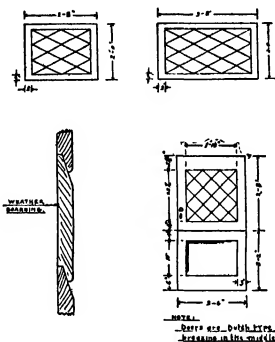
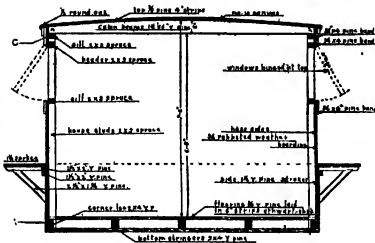
Proceed to finish the decks. Run  $1\frac{1}{2}$  x 3-inch yellow pine stringers across the end studs  $\frac{1}{4}$  inches below where the top of the deck will come. Use 3 x 3-inch yellow pine deck beams, seven to a deck, including sides, and securely nail to the stringer and end board of the hull. A deck of  $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch white pine may then be laid in about 10-inch widths or less, and after being well painted covered with No. 10 canvas. As the run boards on either side of the hull will serve conveniently as a staging for building, it may be well to put them on. The boards themselves are of  $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch spruce planks fastened to  $\frac{1}{4}$  x 3 yellow pine cleats spaced seven to a side, as shown in the plan. They are supported by  $\frac{1}{4}$  x  $\frac{3}{4}$  yellow pine braces, securely fastened to the hull and lagged into the cleats.

The roof beams should next be put up. These are of  $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch spruce, 6 inches deep at center and 3 inches over sills. This gives a crown of 3 inches, just enough to shed water. The beams are spaced 3 feet on centers except where it may be necessary to vary them slightly so that they may serve as a backing for the partitions.

It is now in order to board up the sides. Use  $\frac{1}{2}$  x 6-inch rabbeted boards of the type shown in the section. Start from the bottom and lay out the widths, as shown in the plan, so that they will come right for the finishing bands. Nail each board to every stud with two nails, and countersink and putty the heads. The sides are now ready for the finishing bands and window trim. Commencing at the corners put on the vertical trim of  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch white pine 6 inches wide, and also the door trim. Then the horizontal band under the windows and the strake at the upper edge of cabin, which should be 4 inches deep and finally the second band at cabin top and the window trim, both 4 inches wide. All the foregoing should be of  $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch white pine. The trim at the window openings should be set back so that a shoulder is created by the studs and sills to form a rabbet for the window. The cross section plan will show this. The windows are binned from the top and swung outward, as indicated.

Proceed to finish up the cabin roof by planing it over with  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch white pine boards laid in 4-inch widths and having a tongue and groove with a beaded edge underneath for a finish in the cabin. Paint the top well and cover with No. 10 canvas laid in a single piece. It can be obtained in widths as high as 12 feet, and it is much better to use the single piece and get rid of seams which are liable to leak. Draw the

curves over the edge of the house, and after securely fastening with copper tacks cover them up with a half round molding, as shown in the plan. The doors and windows should be  $\frac{1}{4}$  inches thick, and these



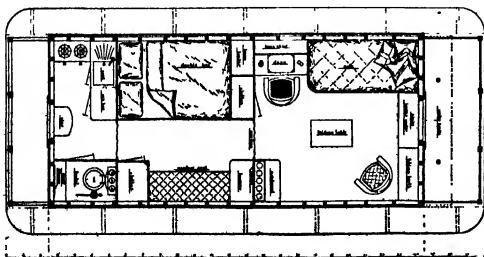
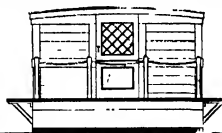
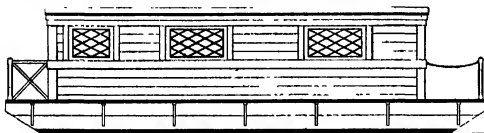
CROSS SECTION OF THE BOAT AND DETAILS OF THE DOORS AND WINDOWS.

plans will be sufficient to enable any one to get them out. The doors are of the Dutch type that is, they open in two sections. They are more handy and convenient when thus made.

An ornamental railing fore and aft, as shown, affords safety and convenience. The after side is fitted with a rope, which can be unbuckled to allow boarding the craft. This completes the hull, and we can now turn our attention to the interior.

The first step is to lay the cabin flooring after painting the inside of the bottom. The floor may be of  $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch yellow pine, laid either in 6-inch widths or in narrower widths, with tongue and groove. The former width is perhaps preferable in this case. Begin at one end and plank straightaway on the stringers and corner logs. The sweep out all shavings and sawdust as you proceed. After the floor is laid and smoothed up, the partitions and cabin fittings are ready to go in.

The interior is arranged to provide sleeping accommodation for a mixed company of four. Entering the houseboat from the after end the first compartment comprises the living room, which is turned into a sleeping room for the men at night. The doorstep has a removable tread, and is used as a locker. On the right a  $6\frac{1}{2}$  x 3 foot couch is installed, fitted with a spring and mattress. Next to this is a deck with bookshelves above. Upon the opposite side, near the door, is a folding berth, shown standing on end. This is built simply like a hollow box, containing an ordinary spring and mattress. It is lowered down for use and afterward upended and held by a couple of hooks. In the opposite corner is a sideboard with glass rack above and drawers below to hold table linen, a folding table and two or three easy chairs complete the furniture in this compartment. Of course chairs and couch should be bought, but it would be more satisfactory to make the deck sideboard and table, and this would not be very difficult if it was done simply of oak, in the mission style, and stained. The next compartment is for the ladies. It is a double bed, as shown which may be taken from the house and installed or built in like a regular bunk with drawers underneath or left open for the reception of trunks. There are two lockers at the foot, one for linen and the other opening into the sitting room for the men's clothes. A built-in bureau is shown opposite and a window seat and clothes closet. The forward compartment contains the toilet with mirror and folding wash basin on the left and the galley fixtures on the right. An alcohol stove is indicated along with a porcelain sink and ice-box under the dresser. Stores may be carried under the forward deck. The partition for the cabin divisions and lockers should be of  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch cypress put up in 3 inch strips, tongue and groove, with



VIEW SHOWING THE EXTERIOR AND A PLAN OF THE INTERIOR OF THE HOUSE BOAT.

a V or beaded edge. White paint may be used but a very nice effect is had by staining the partitions and stud beams dark green and filling in between with green huarip tacked in place and finished around the corners with a neat little molding. The roof and house beams should be either white or a very light olive gray green. Varnish the floor and use rugs or mats. Of course the cabin sides may be relied over but that adds somewhat to the expense and admits of a less artistic effect. A very good looking finish for the interior is as follows. After calking the bottom planks with oakum putty the seams and then give the bottom three coats of red antiseptic paint. Carry this up the sides for 10 inches. Paint the rest of the hull black. A very dark red for the weather boarding looks well. Make all the bands, window trims and sash and deck railings white. The decks and cabin top should have four coats of a half coat. All other wood should have three coats.

The boat is moored by securing chains on either side of the hull and leading them to a common chain about 16 feet ahead of the boat. Use three times as much chain as there is depth of water and a 2000 lb. mooring room anchor, and there need be no fear of going astore.









**Two novel ideas.**  
(Continued from p. 395)  
topped the ground, appears to stand still, while the sleigh slides over it. This is the motion that actually takes place, for the top of the chain travels forward at twice the speed of the sleigh. It will thus be seen that in reality the lower part of the chain in contact with the ground constitutes a surface over which the vehicle itself can move.

The driver has his position on a box behind the engine, which seat forms a cockpit for tools, spare parts and other accessories. That the vehicle has great climbing power has been conclusively proved, for it will ascend steep banks of earth and ride over serious obstacles easily and without any appreciable diminution in speed.

Although this sleigh can carry a party and full equipment, its actual function is to act as a tractor for the haulage of ordinary sledges, the trailing vehicles carrying the loads. From completion by the builders, the tractor was taken to Norway by Capt. Scott, and submitted to some exacting trials on snow covered Lake Peffer near the town of Lulea in that country, where the conditions were somewhat analogous to those prevailing around the south pole. Heavily laden trailing sledges were hauled on the tractor and numerous journeys were made among the Norwegian ice fields. The vehicle proved itself fully capable of withstanding rough usage, and Capt. Scott expressed his complete satisfaction with the results achieved.

Very different from this sled is one which has lately been put to a series of severe running tests on all kinds of ice and snow in the district of the Billan Lake, Sweden. The accompanying photograph of the motor sleigh was taken in the Easter days of this year, after the above-mentioned tests had been carried out.

The design differs from that of other automobile sleighs in the driving mechanism. The sleigh is propelled by two driving wheels, each fitted with a runner of steel paddle beam, on which an elastic frame is fixed. This simple construction thus combines the advantages of a paddle wheel and the runner, the snow, having the propelling capacity of the former on fixed ice and snow surfaces, and the supporting and friction capacities of the latter on loose snow. The flexibility of the frame tends further to prevent the snow from clogging by expelling it from the paddles. The driving wheels run in the tracks made by the sleigh runners, and thus tend to make a good contact surface for the paddle wheels. In case the snow is not compressed enough by the runners, the paddle wheels sink by their own weight into the snow, and compress it sufficiently by means of the frame. The paddles engage with the compact snow by cutting through the crust as knives, and work on account of their breadth, against such a large wedge of the frozen surface, that an effective counter pressure is obtained which would otherwise be impossible if the driving wheels were, for instance, provided with spikes instead of paddles. The sleigh is in this instance driven by a 4-horse-power double-cylinder air-cooled gasoline motor. The motor sleigh illustrated is designed to serve only as a traction engine, to which any kind of sleigh can easily be attached or detached within a few minutes.

It is of course not intended that the motor sleigh as self-contained as an ordinary automobile, and the electrically-driven tow-vehicles of this sleigh were successfully built in this way.

The motor sleigh is governed by means of a very ingenious and reliable steering device for remote hand operation. The power required for steering is transmitted from the operating hand-wheel through flexible steel tubes to the motor. In the tests a speed of 24 miles an hour over a smooth ice surface was attained. When traveling over the snow and ice-covered roads, which were in a very bad

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condition on account of the prevailing thaw, a speed of 10 miles an hour was attained, the total weight drawn being over one ton. During a running test of several consecutive hours, the average speed was 15 miles an hour.

The inventor is a Swedish engineer, Mr. H. Hakanson.

An Industrial Laboratory for the Improvement of the International Lamp. Although the establishment of a research laboratory by a large manufacturing organization is not a novelty, the inception by such an organization of a laboratory which has for its object the development of science rather than the improvement of some industrial commodity is probably without precedent. For that reason, Mr. H. V. Hyle calls attention in a recent number of Science to the new physical laboratory of the National Electric Lamp Association, even though it is still only in a formative state. The object of this laboratory is scientific, the specific purpose being the development of those branches of science with which the art of lighting is closely associated. The fundamental idea which has prevailed in the organization of the work is the proper co-ordination of physics and physiology, the proper cooperation of the physicist, the physiologist and perhaps the psychologist.

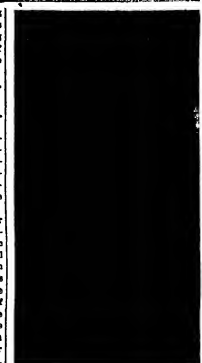
The organization of the laboratory is proceeding with the idea as the foundation. The development contemplates no sharp distinctions among the different divisions of the work. The problems to be investigated, however, group themselves roughly into three classes, and therefore require, in order to insure the proper attention to each, a threefold division in the organization. The three groups of problems to be investigated may be classified as (1) those that have to do with the production of luminous energy, (2) those that have to do with the utilization of luminous energy, and (3) those that have to do with the effects of luminous and attendant radiation.

Under the first class will come the investigation of the laws of radiation, and of the radiating properties of matter. The problems in this class are purely physical, and the corresponding division will be intrusted to a competent physicist.

Under the third class will come the investigation of the effects of light and the attendant radiations on the eye, on the skin and on microscopic organisms. The problems in this class are physiological, and the corresponding division is under the charge of a trained experimental physiologist.

Intermediate between these two classes of problems (the first and the third) are those that are distinctly different, there is another (the second) which forms the connecting link. Touching on one side the physical production of light, and on the other the physiological effects of light, this intermediate division of the work will embrace most of the science most peculiar to illuminating engineering. Investigations of the absorbing, reflecting and diffusing properties of matter, the measurement of light, i. e., photometry, and the study of the complex phenomena of color and color sensation, properly come within the scope of this department of the work.

**Scientific and Technical Books.**  
Messrs. WILEY & CO. recently presented a paper to the Académie des Sciences concerning the good results obtained in the production of color by using the apparatus with an oxidizing solution (magnesium as color) in the usual beverage of the population of the north and west of the United States. The results obtained by the application of this apparatus to the beverage of the population of the north and west of the United States are of such a nature that the application is indispensable to free them from the impurities which they carry, but we must also take account of the defective quality of the water which is available in many cases. The authors' previous report (Concluded on page 408)



## THIS VANADIUM STEEL GEAR BLANK

is 5½ inches in diameter and was bent cold—flat upon itself as shown, without a sign of a crack or fracture.

Vanadium is an elementary metal; it melts at 3600 degrees F.; alloyed with iron in the proportion of one to two, it melts before the fusing temperature of iron or steel, and as vanadium is added to the ordinary steel, the open hearth furnace or the crucible, to molten iron or steel.

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**Military Killed**

balloons, and as well as dirigible, captive balloons, or aeroplanes, may be made available for the purpose of carrying out their simply makes them even especially valuable. Furthermore, they can be employed with any velocity of wind between 10 and 20 miles an hour. The use of a captive balloon becomes difficult if the velocity of the wind exceeds 20 miles an hour. The dirigible, however, is made at Doolittle by Capt. Scobee show that it is quite practicable to carry two persons by means of a large balloon, and that it is possible to make use of the Cody type with four sustaining balloons and with triangular stabilizing struts. Each rectangular cell is strengthened by diagonal rods of bamboo to which the struts are attached. The entire apparatus is carried together, for the purpose of supporting the cable, and of a second series of balloons, which are attached to the cable, may be moved along the cable, and from which the car or basket was suspended. The dirigible is made of light metal, and is seen and on the coast. They are simpler and less expensive in every way than dirigibles, and are especially well adapted for use. Three qualities should make them valuable for many purposes in military and especially in naval operations.

A wireless telegraphy station near Berlin claims to have established a record in combined overland and sea transmission of wireless messages. The station recently succeeded in maintaining wireless communication with a Woermann liner during the entire voyage from Hamburg to the Cameroon. The greatest distance signaled was 8,600 kilometers (over 4,000 miles). Although messages had to pass over the Alps the Algerian tableland, and the Adamawa Range, communication was, it is stated, effected with astonishing ease.

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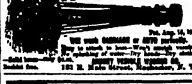
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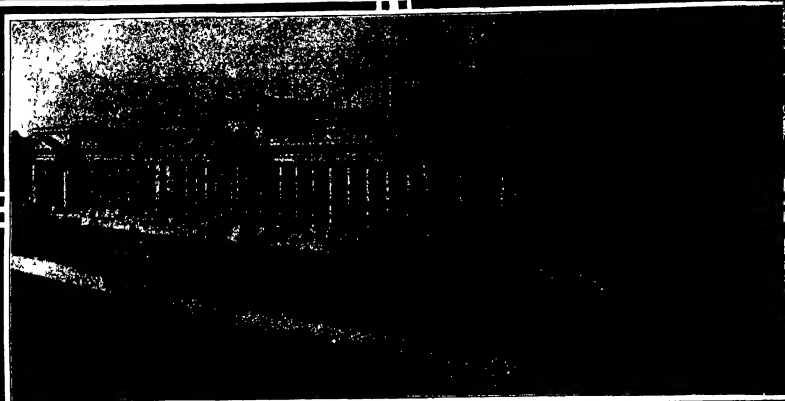
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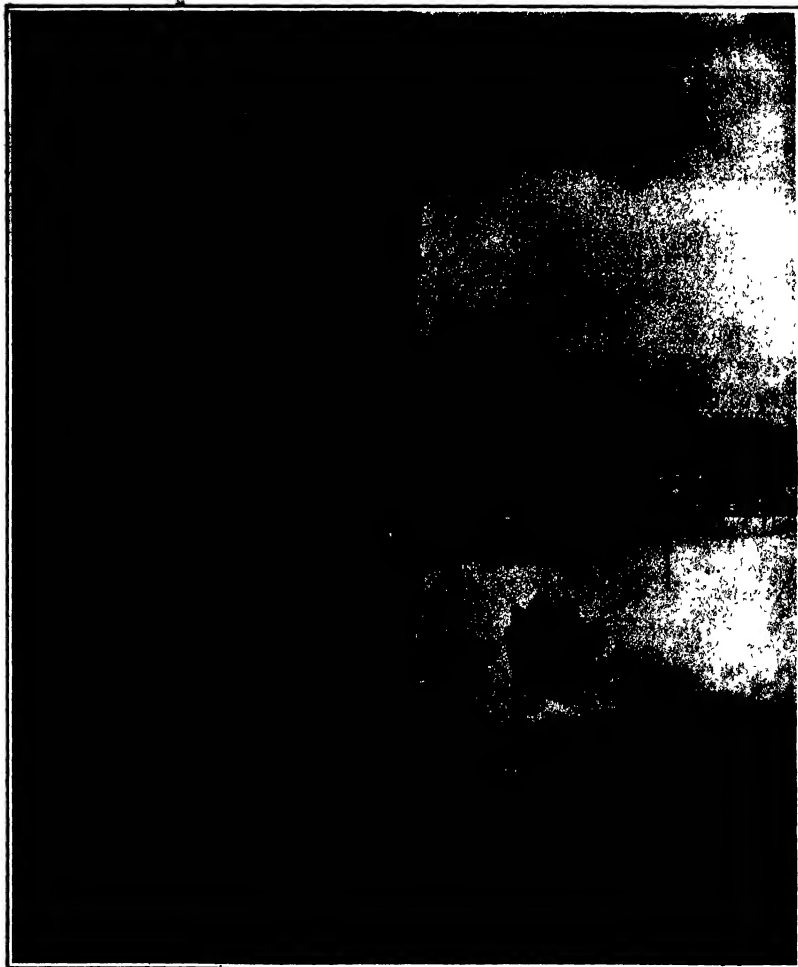
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Published 1910.

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THE LAKEVIEW GUSHER, CALIFORNIA.—THE MOST PROFITABLE OIL WELL IN THE WORLD.—[See page 410.]





## COMET NOTES.

The Lowell Observatory has issued a bulletin on the preliminary notes on photographic and spectrographic observations of Halley's Comet. The observations consist principally of direct photographs of the comet and photographs of its spectrum as seen at Flagstaff. Halley's comet, which on April 15th had shown no very striking changes, except in the divergence or separation of the lateral streamers. Negatives obtained on April 24th and 25th show marked changes in the form of the tail. On the 25th the tail, at a short distance from the head divided into three narrow streamers, a central ray and two symmetrical side branches. On photographs made on the following morning the tail was again quite narrow and straight. On the 26th it was again branched. The most remarkable changes noticed at Flagstaff in the course of the tail were observed on photographs made on April 16th and May 1st. On April 16th the tail had completely changed in form. The more or less bilateral symmetry had entirely disappeared. The plates of May 1st show for a distance of about 70 degrees a tail well defined with a gentle curvature, but beyond this point faint and diffuse. The outer parts of the tail on the last two plates have the appearance of having been acted upon and shattered by some rather sudden and disturbing disintegrating force. The comet's nearest approach to Venus occurred about this time. The question naturally arises, could the planet have been the disturbing influence? Comparisons of the disappearance of the comet's tail for some days before and after this event may tell us something.

The great square of Pegasus acted as a splendid "under" both for the comet of 1810 A. D. and for Halley's comet. This mutual association of the two comets with Pegasus affords a good example of one of the chief difficulties experienced by those astronomers who have endeavored to trace Halley's comet amid the mass of brief and very general records of comets in ancient chronicles.

It is unfortunate that the chance of capturing a sample of the tail of Halley's comet was not seized. The passage of the earth through a comet's tail is so rare an occurrence that no opportunity should be missed. In the April number of the Bulletin de la Société Astronomique de France, C. E. Guillaume suggested the liquefaction of a large quantity of air which could afterward be treated by fractional distillation, and possibly some cometary matter recognized. He pointed out that very minute quantities of the rare gases, such as krypton and argon, are thus secured from immense volumes of air and that it is now possible to liquefy 1000 cubic meters of air per hour. It is just possible that by this means a chemical study of the comet might become a by-product of an industrial operation.

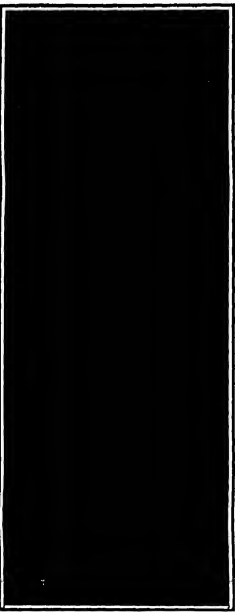
An investigation of Encke's comet by Dr. Backlund shows that the acceleration of the mean motion of that body between 1895-1901 and 1904 was not constant. Dr. Backlund suggests that the resistance which would explain the phenomenon is a meteoric swarm in the neighborhood of perihelion, and that the decrease of the acceleration must be attributed rather to the diminution of the density of the resisting medium than to changes in the comet itself. Dr. Backlund also discusses the comet's fluctuations in brightness, but offers no explanation.

The passage of the earth through the tail of Halley's comet has led Flammarion to suggest that if there is any palpable material at so great a distance from the head it might be possible to measure the minute rise of temperature produced by the earth as it rushed through the tail at the rate of 48 miles a second.

Although comet A. 1910 has sped away its perihelion, it is still the subject of astronomical comment. Thus Dr. Wolf comments upon a colossal mass of material extending from the base of the cone toward the sun, quite different

not from anything seen in previous comets, and having the appearance of a miniature solar light.

It was to be expected that the apparition of Halley's comet would not remain without its effect upon the more ignorant peoples of the world, even though this



PHOTOGRAPH OF HALLEY'S COMET TAKEN BY DR. R. R. SANFORD ON MAY 4, 1910

is the twelfth century, and the days of superstition are supposed to have passed. Reports from China state that the comet was used as an omen to inflame rioters in disaffected districts. To be sure, the authorities tried to counteract these attempts by exhibiting pictures of the comet with an account of its previous

appearances without ill effects, in order to reassure the natives. This Chinese mission finds its counterpart in Europe. The episode of a Hungarian farmer "on account of Halley's comet," as the newspapers have it, is followed by a report from Odessa that in Southern Russia there is a veritable popular terror which is being exploited by unscrupulous persons for the purpose of obtaining money for special prayers, etc.

Observations of Halley's comet made in Harvard College Observatory on the morning of May 18th led to the following results. The brightness of the nucleus of the comet was measured by Prof. Wendell with the 15-inch equatorial, with the resulting magnitude 7.64. The nucleus was, therefore, distinctly fainter than on April 27th, when its magnitude was 6.01. The total light of the comet was greater, being estimated by Mr. Campbell as magnitude 2.3. Three photographs were obtained by Mr. King which showed a well-defined nucleus. A long tail was shown, which was bifurcated.

## THE ACCIDENT TO THE "ZEPPELIN"

The recent destruction of the "Zeppelin" airship again drives home the inherent defects of the rigid type of airship. While journeying from Hamburg to Cologne, it was necessary to anchor the airship in an open field. On April 28th, at 1 P. M., after the vessel had received a new charge of gas, it was torn from its anchor by a storm, and driven away in a northwesterly direction. The airship came down at Wellburg in the vicinity of Wellburg on the River Lahn, and was totally destroyed. Two companies of soldiers were unable to hold the vessel against the terrible storm. In order to prevent a catastrophe, it was necessary to order the soldiers to release the airship, which immediately rose to a height of 700 feet, and was driven away in the direction of Wellburg. At 30 minutes past one the airship was sighted from Wellburg. Suddenly, probably caused by a downward gust, the vessel was forced down into the Lahn valley. In the Lahn valley, where the storm raged violently, the wind blew the vessel broadcast and pressed it down to the earth. The nose dipped almost into the Lahn, which winds through the valley. Then the bow of the "Zeppelin" was caught in the telegraph wires which run along the railway. The metal frame was twisted. Trees were bent and telegraph poles were torn down, and with a frightful noise the wind hurled the enormous gas bag against the side of a hill and forced it into the trees. Another gust of wind then threw the lower portion of the airship across the hill. Aluminium parts, yards of balloon cloth, and steel rods lay in a tangled mass.

The catastrophe of Wellburg is the fourth sustained by dirigible airships. The first was that of the French dirigible "La Patrie," which during a trial at Verdun on the 24th of November, 1907, had to land in the vicinity of Bessene. The next morning, the wind changed to a howling hurricane. The soldiers who were in charge of the airship were compelled to release the rope in order not to be carried away. In a few minutes the "La Patrie" had vanished, and was never seen again.

The next great catastrophe destroyed the "Zeppelin IV," while Count Zeppelin was on his famous 24-hour record trip of the 4th and 5th of August, 1908. On the return journey about ten kilometers from Stuttgart, Count Zeppelin was compelled to alight at Reichenheim to make repairs. Even before it was possible to cure the defects in the motor, which had caused him to come down, the airship was destroyed. To this day the actual cause has not been discovered. The next catastrophe affected the French dirigible "Bénaïssance." The destruction of the "La Patrie" and the "Bénaïssance" were the first of a series of accidents.



By courtesy of L'Espresso.

THE WRECK OF THE ZEPPELIN AIRSHIP AT WELLBURG.

# THE THORNE-BAKER TELE-PHOTOGRAPHIC APPARATUS

AN INSTRUMENT FOR TRANSMITTING PICTURES WITH AND WITHOUT WIRES.

On the evening of May 11th, Mr. T. Thorne-Baker delivered a lecture before the New York Electrical Society, in which he explained a new telephotographic apparatus, of his invention. The apparatus is to be experimentally tried out in transmitting newspaper pictures between New York and Boston. It has been used by the Daily Mirror of London, between Paris and London, and Manchester and London since July, 1899. With some modification, it can be adapted to the wireless transmission of pictures.

Mr. Thorne-Baker's apparatus employs no selenium cells and prints the records electro-chemically. A print is made from a photographic negative in sensitized lead foil on lead foil. The print is made in the usual way, and the parts not acted upon by light are washed away, as in the gelatin process of photography. This impression is wrapped around a drum somewhat similar to the drum of an Edison photograph. The receiver consists of a similar revolving metal drum, over which a platinum stylus traces a helical line on a paper impregnated with some colorless electrolyte, the nature of which is not revealed. Whenever the transmitter of the stylus touches a clear part of the metal foil, current flows to the receiver, and a black or brown dot or mark appears on the chemical paper. The accompanying diagram illustrates the general arrangement of the apparatus.

The lead foil picture is broken up into thin and thick lines with spaces intervening. The stylus touches the thin base or the fat give lines, and the time of contact depends upon the width of the line. Hence the width of the line determines the periods of the line currents.

The apparatus is used over a telephone line, the circuit being closed by the two styles *B*, and *B*, with two batteries *B*, and *B*, and the split resistance *W*, of 1,000 ohms, in shunt. The variable condenser *C* is shunted across the variable contacts of the resistance, and the current is varied by means of the variable charges are regulated with the aid of the resistances *W*, and *W*. These lines currents flow through the chemical paper on the drum, but the pole of battery *B*, connected with the line is of opposite sign to that of the line suit connected with it. When the leakage on the line is great and evenly distributed, less reverse current is required from the balance (a device employed to wipe out residual currents from the line in the way frequently made use of in duplex telegraphy). By increasing the voltage of the reverse batteries *B*, and *B*, considerably greater contrast can be obtained in the pictures. The finer the halftone screen employed in splitting the half tones up into lines, the higher must be the voltage.

In all telephotographic apparatus the problem of asynchronization is one that has always bothered the inventor. The best arrangement is that of Korn whose system has been adopted by most recent designs, as well as by Mr. Baker. The motors, driven through storage batteries at about 3,000 revolutions per minute, are geared down for the drums to 30 revolutions. The speed of each motor is regulated by resistance in series to the field, and the speeds are observed with the aid of vibrating reed frequency meters. A set of tuned steel tongues is fixed in front of a magnet which is fed with alternating currents from slip rings on the motor. Each tongue has a different period of vibration, and when the alternations in magnetization correspond with the period of one tongue, that tongue will vibrate. The receiving drum is driven somewhat more quickly than the transmitting drum, and, therefore, completes its revolution somewhat before the transmitter. It is then stopped by a steel check. When the transmitting drum has completed its turn, a locking contact comes into play; a reverse current is sent to the receiver, which flows into a relay actuating the electro-magnet by which the check is removed. Thus, whatever lag there may be is limited to one

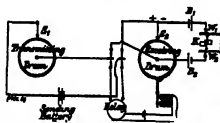


Fig. 1.—General arrangement of the apparatus.

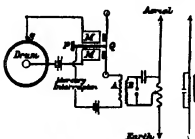


Fig. 2.—Apparatus for transmitting pictures wirelessly.

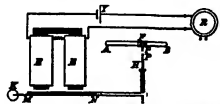


Fig. 3.—Relay employed in the wireless apparatus.

drum, and the drums are always re-started in union. One advantage of Mr. Baker's system is to be found in the fact that the entire operation of transmitting and receiving occurs in full view. It is not necessary to develop a picture before discovering whether any-

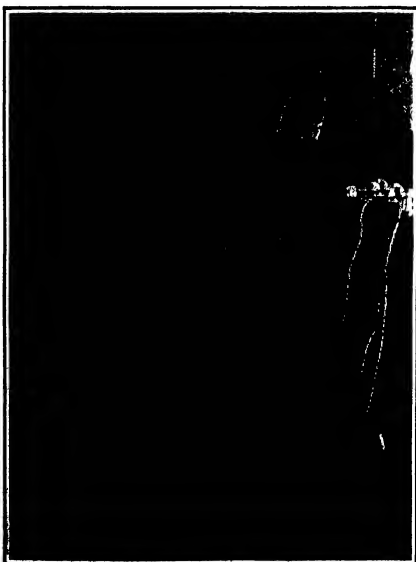
thing is wrong with the apparatus. Furthermore, the transmitting cylinder can be used as a receiving cylinder, if necessary.

The ordinary two-station instruments fit into two boxes of moderate size. A portable apparatus, however, has been devised by Mr. Baker, which he claims can be carried from place to place by an operator, so that pictures can be prepared in the field and telegraphed on. Thus plans, positions of troops and of ships can easily be transmitted.

Perhaps that feature of Mr. Baker's researches which will interest the readers of this journal most is the adaptation of his apparatus to the transmission of pictures by wireless telegraphy. The principles may thus be explained. Connect a small incandescent lamp, coupled with the local side of a relay and battery the relay being actuated by means of a receiver when a Morse key, closing the primary of an induction coil, is depressed the lamp glows until the operator is tapped. The tape can be controlled by the lines in a photograph or sketch and the light of the lamp can be concentrated on a revolving photographic film. Mr. Baker applies the principle in the manner shown in Fig. 2. A line picture is attached to the drum of the transmitter, and the intermittent current ordinarily passed into the telephone line flows into the electromagnet. In order that the operator may attract the diaphragm *Q* and bring the platinum contact *PQ* together. When they are in contact the primary of the transformer is closed, and the spark gap of the secondary, inductively coupled with the coil and the earth, sends out oscillations. Hence the length of the elements and their distance apart are regulated by the lines of which the photograph or drawing to be transmitted is composed.

When working with currents of 110 volts, arcing must be prevented. This is done with the aid of a mercury interrupter. The receiving apparatus is simple and for a short distance the use of the coherer (a monograph of peculiar character). Whenever the oscillation passes the antenna the coherer becomes conductive and a relay is actuated which starts a vibrating hammer. In order that the operator may attract only one for each signal the arrangement shown in Fig. 3 is employed. The relay it actuates the electromagnet *B*, which attracts the armature *M*. This motion brings the resilient hammer *H* provided with the platinum contact *P* against the contact pin fixed to the collar *F* of the coherer *A*. Thus the local circuit is closed, and a black mark appears on the chemical paper. Successive marks can be obtained at intervals of 0.017 second. Up to the present the device has been successfully used only for line drawings. The apparatus however might be used for the transmission of sketches and plans. Mr. Baker suggests that military plans could be done in shallow ink on a slip of metallic foil placed upon a portable machine coupled to a military wireless set, and communications could thus be exchanged. What is more such a communication cannot be tapped. Even if the enemy were in possession of an exactly similar instrument of the same dimensions and screw threads the picture received would be quite confused if the rate of running is altered by five or ten per cent, according to pre-arranged signals.

A special form of Pinchoven galvanometer is employed by Mr. Baker for working the relay which galvanometer has a very intense magnetic field. Instead of the usual silver wire a silver quartz fiber one twelve hundredth of an inch thickness is employed. This galvanometer is combined with the valve receiver for detecting wireless oscillations recently invented by Prof. Fessenden. When the rectified currents with ordinary radio-telegraphy cause the telephone to sound, are sent through the silver quartz fiber the string is shifted. The shadow of the string line over a fine slit, which is thus opened by the oscillations. In order to be able to use



MR. THORNE-BAKER AND HIS TELEPHOTOGRAPHIC APPARATUS.

a wide sail. Mr. Ranger Shephard has fitted the apparatus with a fine shifter, and in that case the receiver can be modified. The beam of light is then directed through the tinned poles of the electro-magnet, and a pair of narrow compensated selenium cells is placed behind the slit, a positive lens being interposed. Any dot received shifts the light laterally, light falls on the selenium cells, and their reduced resistance allows a battery to activate a relay which throws the telephograph receiver into action.

#### HOW THE "FLORIDA" WAS LAUNCHED

The launching of the "Florida," which took place shortly after 10 o'clock, at the Brooklyn navy yard on the morning of May 12th, was an unusually brilliant function. In its technical aspects the launch was particularly successful, and we offer our congratulations to the naval constructors who were directly responsible. The ship was now tied up at the navy yard dock, where she will receive her armor, which is already assembled at the yard, and her torpedoes which are also about ready for placing.

A most interesting feature of the day was a dinner in celebration of the event, given by the employees of the yard who built the ship. This event at which some 1,200 were present, included among the speakers, Vice President Sherman, Governor Gilchrist of Florida Assistant Secretary Withrop of the navy, Admiral Luttwig, the commandant of the navy yard, Naval Constructor Baxter, and others. The day was also notable for the strong personal interest taken by the whole force of men who worked upon the "Florida" in the success of the ship. To the Editor, who was present as a guest, the genuine enthusiasm rained among the men whenever any reference was made to the ship, the yard, and its officers seemed to be a strong endorsement of the policy of having at all times a battlement under construction at the New York yard.

In response to several inquiries as to just how a battleship is launched, we have prepared the accompanying sketches showing a portion of the launching ways near the bow. The permanent ways consist of rows of piling driven to a solid barge upon which are skimed heavy, square timbers, or "pops," running transversely. Upon these are laid series of heavy, longitudinal square timbers in three parallel lines, one immediately beneath the keel, and one on each side

with four-inch white pine timbers, which form the bed in the bow of the vessel rests. To assist in tying the whole cradle together, heavy wire ropes run beneath the bow and are carried around heavy oak timbers, placed on the outside of the pops. Further support is given by 1½ inch rods, which are drawn up snugly by nuts on the outside of the pops.

The cradling timbers are provided throughout their entire length with a series of oak wedge interlocks between them and the launching ways below. About half an hour before the launch, hundreds of workmen range themselves up and down the ways, and by means of heavy sledges drive these wedge home, forcing the launching cradle into closer contact with the ship, and eventually lifting it sufficiently to clear it from the keel blocks, thus transferring the load entirely to the launching ways.

This brings us to the consideration of the interesting method by which the ship is held in place, and prevented from starting off down its well-graded "hogues" until the exact moment when the christening is performed and the order is given to let go. The towing and starting gear are as follows:

The hardwood launching ways are extended forward and strongly bolted down to the ground on permanent ways. After the wedges have been driven home, and the ship is resting on the inclined and well-graded surface it is prevented from moving solely by the fact that these bolted connections are at the moment, at the word of command, carpenters armed with cross-cut saws commence to saw through these timbers, and as the cut is made, a point soon reached where the unusual strength of the remain-

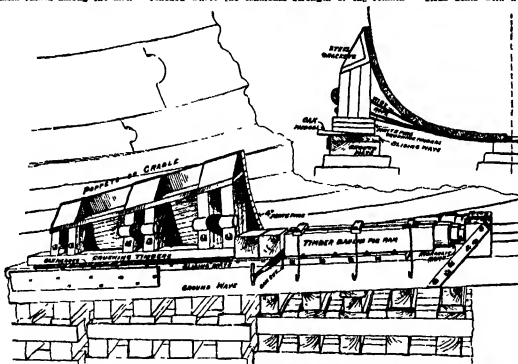
of appeals undoubtedly brings an unnecessary amount of delay and expense, thereby upon an over-worked Commissioner the impossible task of giving to each case the amount of personal attention proper to its disposal, as demanded by law. The Board of Examiners-in-Chief, as at present constituted, consists of three members, and no provision is made under the present law to supply a temporary vacancy caused by absence, or property cause. The result that the absence of one member sometimes results in an unevenly divided Board, and in the consequence a necessity for a rehearing. The absence of two members causes an entire suspension of business. The enactment of Mr. Currier's bill into law would provide an appellate Board, say three members, which would constitute a quorum, the prosecution of all applications on appeal would be expedited, and the elimination of one appeal would make the savings the inventors of one legal fee, attorneys' fees and incidental expenses. Lastly, one appeal in the Patent Office instead of two would give greater stability to the decisions of the office tribunals, and would also obviate any want of agreement that has at times existed in the past between the decisions of the Commissioner of Patents and the Assistant Commissioner.

The bill is in reality Commissioner Currier's bill. It was submitted by him to the Secretary of the Interior, who made a careful study of it and transmitted it for the consideration of Congress. The patent-pooling as a whole, is in favor of the inventor.

The value of the measure will be appreciated when we consider the manner in which the Patent Office does its work. Each of the forty-two examining divisions deals with a special class of inventions. The Board of Examiners-in-Chief, consisting of three men at present, must receive all the inventions from all of these forty-two divisions, covering the entire range of mechanical arts, chemistry, electricity, and of the life. The members of the Board must be experts in all of these widely diverging fields of activity. They must be able to take themselves upon all these classes of inventions as they come before them. They are exposed to the possibility of having a special knowledge of all the legal points which are likely to be involved in the appeals on mechanical questions. They must study up and inform themselves as to be able to explain the technical point at issue. Obviously, in order that these men may keep up with the

time, it is necessary for them to study and read much. At present there are meetings every morning beginning at one o'clock. There are on the dock seven or eight *ex parte* cases involving the patentability of an invention, or one to two interference cases involving the construction of the prior art taken on both sides, the application of the law, and frequently, the right of the applicant to make the claims. Hence, only the forenoon is left for study and what reading is necessary. It is not surprising, therefore, that it is small wonder that the Examiners-in-Chief find it almost impossible to keep up with their work. Driven by it, they can make some sort of a decision, but to do so properly they must be studied thoroughly, and in interference cases the testimony must all be read, even though it may involve thousands of pages. When only three men on the Board, the time has come when there is no time to do something in the way of relief, so that prompt and correct decisions may be handed down. Just now the Board is several months behind in its work. The result is that to get an appeal through the Board of Examiners probably requires three to four months' time. The bill in question saves so much time in getting a case through the Patent Office. It probably provides six men to do the work that three are now trying to do, without any additional cost.

At the present time, the same work is done over twice in the Patent Office, so very good results are not obtained. The theory of the present course of action is that under the decision of the present Board of Examiners-in-Chief, there will be an appeal to the Commissioner of Patents. It is impossible to say how many of these appeals are pending, or what the result will be.



The upper and of sliding ways is better in the ground ways. To free the ship, the sliding ways are sawn through, when a peak from the hydraulic ram (if necessary) can be used.

#### LAUNCHING WAYS AND CRADLE OF "FLORIDA" NEAR THE BOW

launching timber falls to hold the vessel. It parts with a loud report, and almost invariably the ship starts slowly at first, and then more rapidly, for the water. Occasionally a vessel will stick and must be given a start. For this purpose, four heavy ramming tugs are held in position, abutting against the end of the launching ways, with hydraulic jacks interposed between them, and heavy timber abutments. Should any "sticking" or brief operation of the jacks be necessary, sufficient to start her.

Reducing the number of Appeals in the Patent Office. Mr. Frank D. Currier of the Hampshire Independent on January 21st, 1910, a bill the principal purpose of which is to expedite the granting of patents in the Patent Office, and to eliminate one appeal in the office in his last annual report the Commissioner of Patents recommended such legislation and advocated a measure which would combine the Commissioner, the First Assistant Commissioner, the Assistant Commissioner, and the Examiners-in-Chief into a single appellate tribunal, any three of whom shall constitute a quorum, to which all appeals shall lie, whether from the Primary Examiner, from the Examiner in Interference, and from which an appeal shall lie to the Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia.

Under the present patent law in *ex parte* cases an appeal lies from the Primary Examiner to the Board of Examiners-in-Chief, then to the Commissioner (the First Assistant Commissioner or the Assistant Commissioner), and from his decision to the Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia. In interference cases the course of appeal from the decision of the Examiner of Interference is the same. This course





# THE MANUFACTURE OF TWINE

BY DAY ALLEN WILLEY

What is generally known as hemp twine, used in such enormous quantities, is manufactured from two varieties of fiber known as Manila and Sisal. Needless to say the first named comes from the Philippine Islands forming one of the principal products of this possession of the United States while the Sisal is secured principally from Mexico the State of Yucatan contributing the largest supply. An idea of the extent of Manila hemp manufactured can be gained by the fact that each year no less than 125,000 tons are shipped from the city of Manila most of it coming to the United States.

The fiber from the Philippines is obtained from a

verted into fiber. This is done by the manual method of the natives. The material is fed into the peeling hoppers of the mill by means of an endless conveyor, the leaves being laid upon the surface of the conveyor side by side. By means of footed wheels the material is peeled into shreds. In this state the material is passed through mechanical country which remove all of the pulp. Next the fiber passes out of the dectorator and is carried by yards adjacent to the mill, where it is hung upon lines and dried by exposure to the heat of the sun. This process completed, it is pressed into bales of convenient size, and is then ready for shipment to the United States. As already stated, the preparation of Manila fiber is done almost entirely by hand, and before being exported it is also dried to the sun, the natives using long poles, however, instead of rope or wire as at the Mexican plants.

The manufacture of both the Manila and Sisal fiber into the

movable racks or the floor. This is the first process in preparing the hemp for use. It has now become for spinning, but before being conveyed to this apparatus, it goes through what is called the finishing machine. This combines in part the drawing and twisting of the cotton mill, so that when the material emerges from it, the strand has been considerably reduced in size and is slightly twisted, enabling it to be coiled in cans, from which it is fed to the spinning jennies. While the spinning machine is of course designed for treating this fiber especially, it is as automatic in its operation as the modern selfacting mechanism, and no more human labor is required to convert the already finished product than is required in the many factory of yarn and thread from the ordinary cotton. The twine spinning machine includes drawing rolls for lengthening the fiber, the material as it emerges from them being twisted by the action of the spinning mounted upon carriages which adjust themselves to the movement of the drawing rolls.

As fast as the twine is spun it is also wound on a large spool or bobbin, the latter being taken to the baling machine as soon as it is filled with the twine. The baling machines are also automatic in their operation, not only winding the ball from the bobbin but discharging the finished ball automatically when it has reached the proper dimensions. These machines are calculated to wind balls weighing five pounds each, where the twine is used in connection with binders and other agricultural machinery, the balls being packed into cases holding ten each.

At the McCormick plant, which is illustrated in the accompanying engravings, several grades of hemp twine are produced, one of which includes the mixture of Mexican and Manila fiber, as this is found to be very durable. To show the difference in the weight of the material it may be said that a pound of such twine contains 600 feet. The twine made entirely from Manila is slightly finer and averages 650 feet to the pound, while the Sisal is the coarsest, averaging 500 feet to the pound.

Manufacturing the Twine by Hand.

California soon saw a way to solve the food problem by educating the farmers.

She believes that the farmer is never too old to learn.



Type of spindles used for converting hemp into twine

species of the banana family, which attains a height of fifteen or twenty feet. The stems of the separate leaves grow in a close cluster forming what appears to be a solid tree trunk, to the height of ten or twelve feet, where they separate and branch out like the limbs of an ordinary tree.

The natives cut these stalks off near the ground removing the leaves from the top of the stalk, then separating the stems and removing the pulp from the fiber by repeatedly drawing it across the edge of a dull blade pressed on a block of wood. This primitive method of cleaning the Manila fiber has not as yet given place to modern machinery. The average day's work of a native is eighteen pounds of cleaned fiber.

This work of growing and cleaning the fiber is often done in the mountainous districts. After the fiber has been dried it is packed in convenient sized bales and brought down to the coast villages where it is purchased by exporters, who sort the fiber and press it by machinery into bales convenient for shipping. These bales are protected by matting woven or plaited from rushes by the natives, and are secured by rattan bands.

The Hawaiian plant furnishes the Sisal fiber which is brought to this country. The plant bears a remarkable resemblance to the well-known century plant, and is frequently mistaken for the latter on account of its appearance. As it forms one of the principal products of Yucatan the Sisal plant is cultivated on large plantations, principally by Indian labor. The young plants on these plantations are set out in rows about ten feet apart. About the fifth or sixth year the plant is sufficiently matured, so that the under and larger leaves are cut, and the pulp removed by decortication, leaving the fibers to dry in the sun, they are then baled ready for market. The plant continues to grow and produces about a dozen mature leaves each year. At the end of a period ranging from fifteen to twenty years the plant dies, and is replaced by a young one.

The method of gathering the Sisal and shipping it to market is much more systematic than the process employed in the Philippines, for nearly all of the Sisal plantations have railways extending through the Hawaiian fields, so that as fast as the harvest is gathered it can be loaded directly on cars and drawn by mules to the factory, where it is con-

twine of commerce

is performed by practically the same process. The interior of the modern twine factory is somewhat similar in appearance to that of a modern cotton mill, with the exception that some of the machinery utilized in the latter is missing. This is due to the fact that less care is required in the preparation of the fiber for spinning, since its appearance usually does not influence the value of the finished product. As is well known, the preparatory machinery in a cotton mill is by far the most elaborate apparatus furnished. It includes the opening and scutching machine, by which the material is cleaned from dirt and other foreign particles. As the fiber is not a mass of fine raw cotton, this mechanism is not required, nor is it necessary to form it into bales preparatory to carding. In the modern twine mill, however, the fiber is passed through mechanism which is somewhat similar to the carding engine and performs the same duties, disintegrating the fiber by means of revolving cylinders provided with cards which are suitable for treating such coarse material. When carded the fiber is drawn into a cord, through which it passes between calender rollers and emerges from the machine in a coarse strand. It is then coiled in large heaps either upon



Machines for baling the twine.



Bales of twine ready for shipment

THE MANUFACTURE OF TWINE.

She also believes in teaching the young to be farmers.

Accordingly, the State maintains a college of agriculture, a university farm, polytechnic school, United States experiment station, etc.

Now she proposes to introduce the study of agriculture into the public schools of the State.

A substantial beginning in this line has already been made in the establishment of the study in the high schools, later on it will find a place in the primary and grammar schools.

Then California has its farmers' club, granges, and farmers' unions scattered all over the State, and these organizations exercise a large influence upon the educational thought of the day.

Every year some hundred or so farm institutes are held in various parts of the State and reach annually between 25,000 and 35,000 farmers.

California has the best organized horticultural com-

mission in the world, comprising a central office and State headquarters at Sacramento and a quarantine department in San Francisco.

Each county covering a horticultural section also has its own local commission, inspectors, etc., while the fruit growers hold two State conventions annually. These all wield a strong educational influence and add largely to the sum of farm knowledge in the State.

But the latest and most striking feature of California's campaign of farm propaganda is the so-called "Agricultural and Horticultural Demonstration Train." This train is the joint work of the California College of Agriculture and the Southern Pacific Company, the one supplying the exhibits and corps of lecturers and

This led to the organization of the "Agricultural and Horticultural Demonstration Train." And it only needs a glance at California's industrial statistics to convince one of the truth of this charge of wasteful husbandry.

California, thirty years ago was one of the leading wheat-producing States of the Union. In the year 1879 its wheat output amounted to not less than 1,707,500 tons, in 1904 the annual product of wheat had dwindled to 465,025 tons, a shrinkage of more than seventy-five per cent.

California was formerly a great exporter of wheat and flour. In the year 1882 she exported not less than 1,130,001 tons of wheat and 918,096 barrels of flour.

In 1904 her exports of wheat had dwindled to 54,381 tons and flour exports to 882,486 barrels. Today both the export of wheat and flour are nil and the State is compelled to import a million dollars' worth of wheat annually in order to keep her mills running, and her flour up to standard grade.

And all a result of poor farming, as is evidenced by the fall of the average annual yield per acre of wheat from forty to less than fifteen bushels.

gricultural lecturers cover a wide field, including plant culture, plant diseases, and plant pests, viticulture, animal industry, dairying, seedling and soil treatment, etc.

Special stress, however, is laid upon the vital importance of restoring the lost fertility of depleted soils and the maintenance in their composition of that vital element known to agricultural science as humus, all of which has a direct bearing upon the increase in the production of food-stuffs sufficient to supply the demands of a constantly increasing population.

#### Fire Control in the National Forests.

Probably one of the best things in the line of an agreement has just been signed by the Secretary of Agriculture and several railroads whose lines run alongside of the national forests. Two of the largest and longest roads in the Northwest (the Great Northern and the Northern Pacific) have agreed to pass through some of the richest timber districts in the West and this agreement is of great benefit.

They have in view both the reduction to the lowest point of fire risk from the operation of the railroads and joint action by the Forest Service and the railroads to fight all fires which may start along the lines. Both companies have agreed to clear and keep clear of inflammable material a strip of varying width, as conditions demand, up to 300 feet beyond the right of way, and to provide all locomotives with do not burn oil, with suitable spark arresters and other standard equipment to prevent the dropping of fire. An effort will also be made by the companies to so operate their engines as not to cause fires.

In fighting fires the railroads and the Forest Service will co-operate closely. Notification will be made promptly to the Forest officers of all fires discovered by employees of the railroads. Telephone wires to make this possible will be put up



Separating the course from the fine floor.

demonstrators, and the other a fully equipped railroad train comprising three exhibit cars, a lecture car, a sleeping car and diner, all absolutely free of cost to the State.

The work of the train is arranged in a series of annual tours, covering all the leading agricultural and horticultural sections of the State.

Each series consists of five separate tours, each tour covering from 500 to 1,000 miles, and from twenty to twenty-five stopping places. The work of the train begins in the late fall and ends in the late spring. It does not specialize like the demonstration train of the West but covers all the leading lines of agriculture and horticulture.

Its corps of lecturers contains some of the ablest members of the faculty of the College of Agriculture, and the president of the university, Benjamin Ide Wheeler, frequently joins the train in its course, and lends his aid to the work of general farm enlightenment.

The Southern Pacific Company very candidly admits its own interested motive in the premises, and frankly explains that it discovered a serious falling off in its local tonnage, and when the matter was investigated it was discovered that the shrinkage was found in the item of farm produce.

They consulted their local freight agents as to the underlying cause, and were told that the principal cause was an exhaustion of the soil.

This was hardly believable, and the company consulted the soil experts of the College of Agriculture who denied the theory of exhaustion, but explained that the soil had been depleted by a practice of poor cultural methods.



Unloading out the hemp preparatory to shipment.

It is in this area of wasteful farming that California desires to put a stop to, and hence it advocates her campaign of agricultural education.

The "Agricultural and Horticultural Demonstration Train" is developing unlooked-for efficacy. It was originally intended

for the enlightenment of the present generation of farmers, but its influence is being carried beyond that limit, it is being brought to bear upon the rising generations, and the young folks are fully as much in evidence at the lectures and demonstrations as the older ones.

At each stopping place for lectures the local schools of all grades are dismissed and the pupils allowed to attend, a privilege that is evidently appreciated by all.

There are the demonstration care and lecture car, attend open-air lectures, lectures and discussions in neighboring school rooms, public halls, and opera houses, and are found in attendance whether the gathering be in the daytime or in the evening.

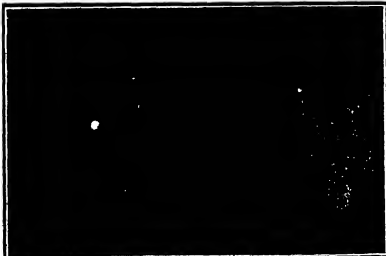
The subjects dealt with by the agricultural and hor-

#### Winding the material into canisters for spinning.

by the Forest Service using the companies' poles where this is possible. Warning whistles will also be sounded by locomotives on occasion.

Forces of fire fighters will be assembled on the outbreak of fire, and will be made up of Forest officers, railroad employees, and such temporary labor as can be gathered by either. The cost of fighting fires which start within 200 feet of the railroads will be borne by the companies and of all others by the Forest Service, unless it is shown in the first case that the railroads were not responsible or in the second case that they were responsible for the outbreak of the fire. It is the intention of the Forest Service to patrol its rights

(Continued on page 427.)



Preparing the hemp for spinning.



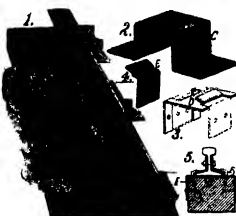
Preparing the hemp for spinning.





IMPROVED RAIL CONNECTION.

To prevent the destructive hammering of the rails when depressed by the passage of a train, a new construction has recently been designed to furnish a more substantial support at the rail joints for them. It

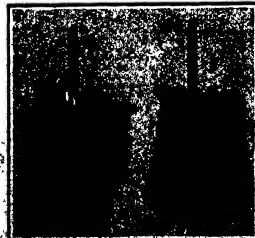


IMPROVED RAIL CONNECTION.

consists in providing timbers or ties running longitudinally under the rails at the joints. In addition to this, a number of very substantial metallic fastenings serve to clamp the rails tightly in position. It is usually the case that the joints of a railroad are straggled to some extent, and not on the ties and heavy flanges are depended upon to support them. The construction here illustrated is intended to offer an improvement on such an arrangement of the joints. As shown in the accompanying engraving, the two ties A, between which the joint comes, are depressed, and on them is laid the longitudinal timber B. The latter is clamped down to the ties by means of a metal fastening C, which is shown in full in Fig. 2. This is substantially of U-form, and may be termed a "middle piece." It is preferably morticed into the timber to the depth of its thickness. The base flanges are secured to the ties by means of spikes. Each middle piece is cut out at the top to form a hook or lip that engages the outer side of the rail base and thus prevents outward movement or spreading of the rails. At the joint the rails are connected by the usual flanges and bolts and are secured firmly to the timber B by means of a metallic fastening D, such as shown in Fig. 3 and a pair of fastenings E, such as shown in Fig. 4. Fig. 5 is a cross-sectional view of the rail joint, and shows how these fastenings are applied. The fastening D is approximately T-shaped, and passes under the base of the rails, being formed with a hooked portion, which engages the inner side of the rail base. Over this hook, one of the fastenings E is applied, while at the opposite side is another fastening E. The fastening D being cut away to receive it. Thus a very strong joint is provided, which should reduce the unpleasant hammering noise at the joints and also increase the safety of the railroad. The inventor is Mr. Henry Grass of Alvin, Texas.

FENCE POST ANCHOR.

A patent has recently been granted on a novel method of supporting a fence post, so that it will stand erective strain. The construction will be especially useful for anchoring corner posts. The device is very simple and inexpensive and may be readily attached to any post. In our illustration, we show in Fig. 1 the construction applied to the ordinary fence



post, while in Fig. 2 is shown the construction made for corner posts. In both illustrations the post is designated by the letter A. At the bottom of the post is an anchor plate B, which at one end is fastened out to form a blade C. The opposite end of the anchor plate is doubled upon itself to receive the lower end of a diagonal brace D, the upper end of which is bolted to the post. An angle brace E is secured to the opposite side of the post and connects it to the anchor plate B. The spikes which pass through the anchor plate are long enough to be driven to a considerable depth in the ground, and serve as additional means for preventing the anchor plate from sliding out of position. In use a trench is dug at the point where the post is to be erected. The trench is just wide enough to receive the anchor plate B, and the blade C of the plate is driven into the unutilized ground at the end of the trench, thus affording a firm anchorage. Thereafter the post is erected on the anchor plate and the braces D and E are bolted fast. For corner posts, the anchoring device is used in duplicate. The blades C of the anchor plate are driven into the ground at the side, where there will be a lifting strain imposed by the tension of the fence wires. The invention of this anchoring device for fence posts is Mr. Julius Lanz, of Flatonia, Texas.

AMMONIA PURIFIER FOR REFRIGERATING PLANTS.

A recent patent discloses an improved method of purifying ammonia, so as to render it anhydrous for refrigerating plants. The object is to produce a high grade of anhydrous ammonia continuously while the compressor is in operation. An apparatus is provided which is connected in circuit with the compressor and condenser and removes a portion of the heat from the compressed ammonia so as to condense the oil and water vapor and permit dry or partially cooled but uncondensed ammonia to be delivered to the condensing coil. In this way the amount of cooling that



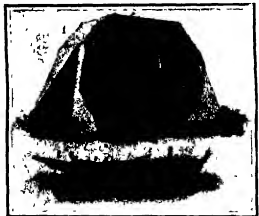
APPARATUS FOR PURIFYING AMMONIA FOR REFRIGERATING SYSTEMS.

is required in the condenser is reduced. The passage of oil to the condenser is prevented and the ammonia is condensed separately, so that only pure anhydrous ammonia is delivered to the expansion valve. The apparatus comprises two holders or drums A and B which are connected at the bottom by a pipe C. The drum B is preferably raised above the drum A. The compressed ammonia enters the drum A through a pipe D, then passes through one or more connecting pipes E to the drum B after which it passes out through the pipe F. The cooling system consists in a pair of water chambers G and a pipe H, connecting the top of the water chamber in drum B with the bottom of the chamber in the drum A. The water passes through the cooling system in the reverse direction to the flow of ammonia through the apparatus. The temperature and rate of flow are so controlled that there will be no condensation of ammonia in the gas holder, but all the oil and water vapor which may be carried along with the ammonia will be condensed in these holders and accumulate in the lower portions. If the valve in the pipe C is opened, the oil and water will flow into the bottom of the drum A and may be drawn off at that point. The object of letting the oil and water from the compressor pass up through the oil and water in the drum A is to heat the oil and thus prevent as far as possible the loss of ammonia. The inventor of this apparatus is Mr. Lawrence Wagner of Missouri Avenue and Missouri Pacific Tracks, Redalia, Missouri.

CONVERTIBLE BOAT AND TENT.

For the benefit of campers, hunters, and the like, a folding tent has recently been devised which may be erected into a very small compass and which may also be converted into a canvas boat. Our illustration shows the device in its two forms, partly broken away

to reveal the framework. It will be observed that the upper portion of the tent comprises a pair of stay-ropes A, connected by cross bars B. These are supported on four posts indicated at C and D, and the structure is rendered quite rigid by means of a system of guy wires. Swung from the framework are a pair of bars E which support a hammock F. The upper portion of the tent frame is covered with water-proof canvas, and in addition to this, there is a lower canvas section which may be fastened to the upper section by means of buttons, thus forming a spacious tent, and the occupant can sleep on the hammock,

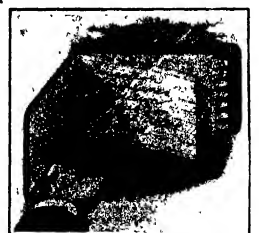


CONVERTIBLE BOAT AND TENT.

which is a decided improvement over using the ground for a bed. When breaking camp, the posts C and D are withdrawn from their sockets and the bars long are folded up, so that the entire framework of the tent may be placed in a small bag. To convert this framework into a boat, it is extended and inverted, so that the cross bars B from the bottom of the boat. The bars E of the hammock are hooked to the framework at one end and fastened together at their outer ends to form a bowsprit for the boat. The bowsprit is braced by a pair of arms H which are hinged to the cross bar G. It will be observed that the stay-ropes at J are extended to form outriggers and the posts C of the tent are so constructed as to form masts. The seat of the boat is supported on a pair of longitudinal beams A. The canvas top of the tent is applied to the framework in its folded state, thus forming a flat bottomed canvas boat of large capacity. Mr. Joseph Vankh of Beloit, Conn. has just secured a patent on this convertible boat and tent.

INDEX SYSTEM FOR POCKET MEMORANDA.

A patent has recently been granted on an improved pocket memorandum book, which is provided with a novel indexing system. The first leaf of the book is shorter than the others and serves as a topic list, being ruled to allow of entering various topics on which notes are to be kept. The other leaves of the book are cut with series of tabs as shown in the illustration, the tabs on each leaf corresponding in number to the topics provided for in the topic list. When notes on a subject are entered on one of the leaves of the book, all the tabs of this leaf except that opposite the topic to which the notes relate are cut away. When a leaf is filled, it may be removed and filed away in a card index. If it is desired to consult the leaf in which the notes on a subject are entered, the tab is pulled out to its full length and the tab is held in its position. In this way the entire memorandum book is so arranged that no matter it contains is always properly indexed, and may readily be referred to whenever desired. Furthermore the material is so placed and the leaves are so arranged that when they are removed and filed

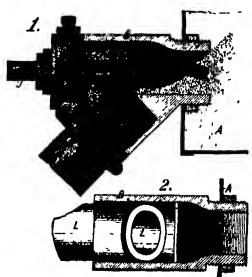


MEMORANDUM BOOK WITH NOVEL INDEX SYSTEM.

has a card index no transcribing of the notes is necessary. The device should be of a convenient advantage to the modern farmer, horticulturist, gardener, or stock man, who must have some convenient way of outlining and preserving the data of his daily work if he is to get a full measure of profit and satisfaction out of his experience from year to year. He cannot afford to trust his memory with much important detail, and an elaborate system of keeping a record does not appeal to him. The pocket memorandum book with its ruled index should meet his needs. The inventor of this memorandum book is Mr. B. A. Dagby, 1107 Hook Street, Louisville, Ky.

#### IMPROVED TRACER SANDER.

Featured in the accompanying engraving is an improved tracer sander for use with locomotives. The apparatus is so arranged that two jets of compressed air are employed, one of which is directed against the sand in the sand box, serving to agitate it, while the other air is to discharge the same continuously and smoothly. Special precautions are taken to prevent the nozzle from being clogged with sand. In our illustration the sand box is indicated at *A*. The sander casing *B* is substantially of Y form. It is threaded into the sand box and held in place with a lock nut. At the opposite end of the casing is a plug *C*, provided with an extension *D* constituting the nozzle. At the extreme inner end of the extension *D* the bore is constricted to form a jet opening, which communicates with a press in which a ball *F* is placed. In addition to this, there is an inclined jet opening *H*. At the opposite end of the plug there is a screen *I* which serves to strain the compressed air that enters by way of pipe *J*. In the other leg of the



IMPROVED TRACER SANDER.

Y-shaped section is the pipe *L*, which leads to the point at which it is desired to discharge the sand. Within the casing, and extending partially over the passage leading to pipe *L*, is a shank *K*. In operation, when compressed air is admitted to the nozzle it forces its way past the ball *F* into the sand of the sand box *A*. A portion of the air is directed backward to the jet opening *H*, producing a partial vacuum, which causes the sand that is agitated by the other jet of air to flow along the shank *K*, and thence is carried down the discharge pipe *L*. The ball *F* prevents the constricted opening in the nozzle from being clogged with sand, and this constricted opening serves to reduce the fluid pressure by permitting its expansion past the ball *F*, so that a destructive sand blast is avoided thereby. The inventor of this improved tracer sander is Mr. John Henry Waters of Augusta, Ga.

#### BRIEF NOTES ABOUT NEW INVENTIONS.

The signaling sign which has been recently placed in front of a Denver business house is a visual as well as a subtle means of attracting the attention of passers-by. The particular sign referred to displays the word "Business" and is of the electric flashing type. The illumination of one letter follows the other, and as the lamps comprising each letter are flashed, a wooden hammer strikes one of a group of orchestral salutes. There is a different bell for each letter, and the rhythms represent a complete octave. The combination of sounds may be varied at will with but little trouble.

The illuminated elevator threshold is a new means to prevent what is a quite common form of elevator accident. The elevator attendant, making hundreds of stops in the course of a day, is not always enabled to bring the car to a halt at the exact floor level, and a very slight variation is sufficient to give the passenger a jolt if not more serious injury. The floor of the car being held an inch or two above that of the

building is likely to trip the unguarded person about to enter the car, while persons stepping out are liable to be thrown down. The latest method of avoiding this is the insertion of a pair of plate glass lenses in the metal of the threshold, with an incandescent lamp under each. These are kept in operation all the time the car is in use. The lamps are supplied through the elevator cable in the same manner as the overhead lamps. This device has been tried with excellent success in some moving-picture establishments, where the rear seats are slightly above the level of the aisle floor.

The jobbing carpenter moving around from one place to another, and locating for a few days at a time in one spot, in the course of his peripatetic career is compelled to spend considerable of his time in the construction of wooden houses or trailers, which are generally so necessary for his work. These things are of such an awkward shape and size that it is out of the question to carry them from point to point, so he is compelled to build them in many cases before he can proceed with his work. To meet such demands, houses of steel with collapsible legs have recently been made, so that they may be readily packed up and carried from place to place. The legs fold over on the back of the trailer when not in use and when being transported, and in this form they are very compact. Being of angle iron, the trailers are not heavy and is almost everlasting.

#### ODDITIES IN INVENTIONS.

HAT FASTENERS.—The recent agitation against long hair has not a Yankee inventor to thinking. He has arranged a hatpin which has no exposed point and which does not have to be removed from the hat, but which may be operated to engage the hair by giving it a half turn. The hatpin extends from side to side of the crown of the hat, and is provided

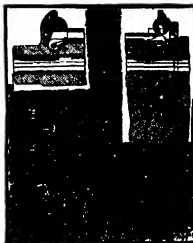


A NOVEL TYPE OF HATPIN.

with a series of hooks or knuckles sharply pointed at the ends, so that when the pin is turned they will hook into the hair. Whether the hat fastener has been tried in actual practice we do not know but it seems as if there would be considerable danger of entangling the hair in the curved hooks.

DEVICE FOR DRAWING OR REMOVING OVERSHOES.—An inventor does not have to go far afield for objects upon which to exercise his inventive faculties. Even in the most commonplace matters of everyday life there is room for improvement. Take, for instance, the method of removing one's overshoe; the usual way of tettering on one foot while trying to kick the shoe off the other foot is most awkward, to say

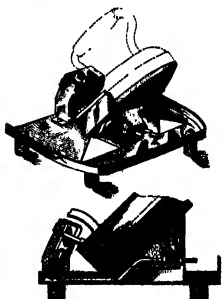
the least. Recently, an inventor has devised a little attachment for the cane or umbrella, whereby one can stand firmly on one foot and steady himself with the umbrella while removing the overshoe by pressing the tug at the back of the overshoe against the attachment on the umbrella. The inventor has provided a



DEVICE FOR DRAWING OR REMOVING OVERSHOES.

more elaborate device to hold the overshoe in place while drawing it on. The tug at the heel of the overshoe is so formed that it can be engaged between a pair of jaw clamps, one of which is fixed while the other is spring-actuated. This device is applicable to a cane, and running from the movable jaw is within a convenient distance of the heel of the shoe is a rod, which may be lifted to release the jaws. LUMINOUS GUN BARRAGE.—When using a gun in the dark or deep twilight, it is very difficult to secure accurate aim, because the sights are invisible. This difficulty has frequently been experienced by sailors, who should be able to cover an approaching enemy with accuracy, in order to secure their own safety as well as that of the ship. To enable this to be done, an inventor has recently devised a gun in which the sights are luminous. This is effected by means of a pair of small electric lamps lighted by batteries placed in the stock of the gun. The sectional view in the accompanying cut shows how the lamps are arranged. The sights are formed with prisms, which at their lower ends communicate with chambers in which the lamps are located. The lamps are lit only when the trigger is partially pressed, so that it is not necessary for the sentry to expose his whereabouts until he is ready to fire. The sights are of such a nature that they may be used in the daytime with the lamps disconnected, a switch being provided for opening or closing the lamp circuit.

SUPPORT FOR ELECTRICALLY HEATED PLATINGS.—A novel support has recently been invented for electrically heated platons. It is so arranged that the current is turned on only when the iron is on the support. The support consists of a metallic base provided with top of insulating material and upon which is mounted, in inclined position, a plate of slate. On this the plating is adapted to be supported, so that the head of the plating will slide down and bear against a block of insulating material at the rear of the base. In this block are two sockets, provided with metallic tips forming the terminals of an electric circuit. The plating, which is provided with a usual heating coil, has two terminal pins near



SUPPORT FOR ELECTRICALLY HEATED PLATINGS.

the heel. These are adapted to engage the clips when the iron is in position on the plate. This completes the circuit through the coils, and serves to heat the iron. As soon as the iron is removed from the support, the circuit is broken, and there is no waste of current or dangerous overheating liable to result.











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(Continued from page 428.)

working, and the explosion is propagated thence through the gallery to the shaft. Hence, by applying this paste to a small region near each working, it is possible to confine the explosion to the workings themselves and to protect the rest of the mine, without the necessity of applying the same precaution through miles of galleries. This fact greatly reduces the expense and trouble involved in the work. Practical experiments in a Westphalian mine and in an experimental gallery have proved the correctness of the theory upon which this process is based. In the mine, the walls remained damp 8,000 hours after the application of the paste, but they dried up within six hours when water was used. The explosion of 75 grains of dynamite produces a sufficiently powerful flame to explode a mixture of coal dust and air when the walls of the gallery are dry, and for this reason the use of dynamite in coal mines is prohibited by law. The experiments prove that in a mine gallery protected by the Kruskopf process, more than five ounces of dynamite can be exploded in a mixture of coal gas and air without causing ignition. The experiment was repeated twelve times. After each blast, the quantity of coal dust in the mixture was increased by the addition of a fluid amount of dry dust, but the application of the paste or water was not renewed in these conditions, when water was used, ignition took place after the third blast, but the first fatal explosion occurred after the twelfth blast when the Kruskopf paste was employed. These conditions are very much more unfavorable than those which occur in the practical operation of coal mines.

## Colors of Foods.

Of the strong additions many consumers have to the use of foodstuffs that are securely and highly colored for the market, the London Lancet says: "For some not quite clear reason there are many people who took upon the brown egg as necessarily a new laid one, and the white egg as necessarily a fresh egg, as a result, it is easily met not by the honest brown egg, but by the white egg which has been stepped in a dye which renders it visually indistinguishable from the real article. As a result, it is commonly held to be a buff time, it is likely to be richer than white milk. Of course nothing can be easier than to satisfy this preference for a milk of a creamy shade. White-looking butter is dislaid as looking too much like butter. The remedy is simple, it is artificially colored. Vegetables must be bright green to make them look fresh, the consumers of them being quite willing to ignore the fact that copper does not make them fresh or wholesome. On the other hand, curiously enough, bread must be white. It is not a matter of taste, it is a matter of habit."

"It is, of course, perfectly natural to take color as a criterion of the dietetic value or flavor of food, and the attractive or unattractive appearance of food may make all the difference as to whether that food is, or is not, assimilated properly. The deceit which is practiced by artificially coloring food may thus serve a useful purpose, so long as the coloring matter is harmless, but as a rule the proceeding is an intentional one. It does not follow that because food is unattractive it is valueless as a food. It is well every form of sophistication is open to commercial advantage, a cornucopia of work submitted to us a brown-headed egg which on opening displayed a gorgeous red coloring scattered chiefly through the white. On analyzing the coloring proved to be an aniline dye. The dye had deposited a base brown on the shell, but an excess had permeated the yolk, and, meeting with the slightly acid contents, was changed to a porvine color inside. Until the egg was opened, therefore, it appeared perfectly attractive, but on opening it the nest to it was quickly disappeared."

# Edison Breaks Silence

The world has long waited for a direct message from Thomas A. Edison. It is his rule not to write for publication. He has broken it this once and the lucky medium to receive his precious communication is *Popular Electricity*, in the June issue of which will be found the most important & thrillingly interesting of the future—







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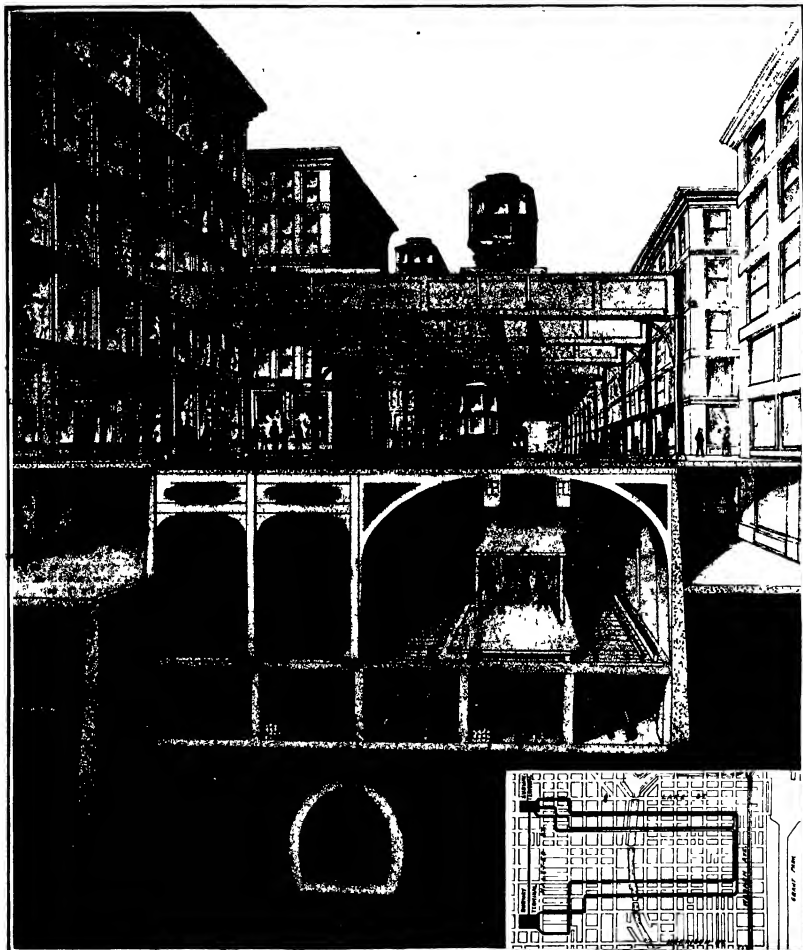
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Chicago proposes gradually to place all tracks, surface and elevated, that enter the business zone, below street level. The above view shows a station on the new Wabash Avenue four-track subway. The trolley cars are to the right, the elevated express cars use the left-hand track. The lowest tunnel is the present 60-mile freight subway.

HOW CHICAGO IS SOLVING ITS RAPID TRANSIT PROBLEM.—(See page 489)







## THE LATEST GIANT FREIGHT ENGINE

FOR USE ON THE HEAVY GRADES OF THE DELAWARE &amp; HUDSON RAILROAD

It takes but a glance at these photographs of the huge Delaware & Hudson freight engine recently turned out from the shops of the American Locomotive Company. In

realization to what the freight engine has grown. The two men inside the 41-inch low-pressure cylinders are of them comfortably seated, the stalwart men standing erect in the 90-inch front end of the boiler with a foot and a half clearance between his head and the roof, tell their own story of dimensions. To this may be added the following particulars:

There are, as usual in the articulated type, two engines on two trucks, the forward a low pressure with cylinders 41 inches diameter by 25 inches stroke, the after engine a high pressure with

cylinders 26 inches diameter by 25 inches stroke. Each engine drives eight, coupled, 31-inch driving wheels which carry the whole weight, 445,000 pounds,

ring, has a total heating surface of 6,450 square feet, and it supplies steam at 250 pounds pressure.

The tender carries 9,000 gallons of water and 14

tons of coal; its weight loaded is 180,000 pounds; and the engine and tender together weigh 411,500 pounds.

The engine can haul on the level 2,500 miles per hour 100 fifty-ton cars, each of which loaded will weigh 5 tons. This will mean a load behind the tender of 1,500 tons, or a total load for the train of over 7,500 tons.

The company has built six of these engines for the Delaware & Hudson Company.

They are designed for pusher service on the Wilkes-Barre & Susquehanna division of that road, between Carbondale, Pa., and Oneonta, N. Y.—a distance of 95

(Continued on page 440)



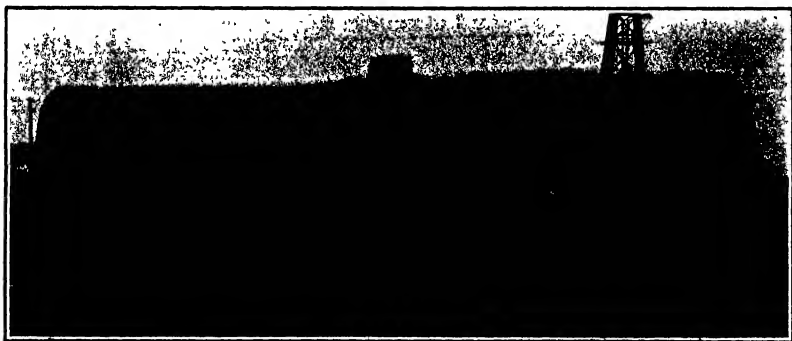
A man can be comfortably seated in each of the 41-inch low-pressure cylinders.



Front end of boiler is 7½ feet diameter.

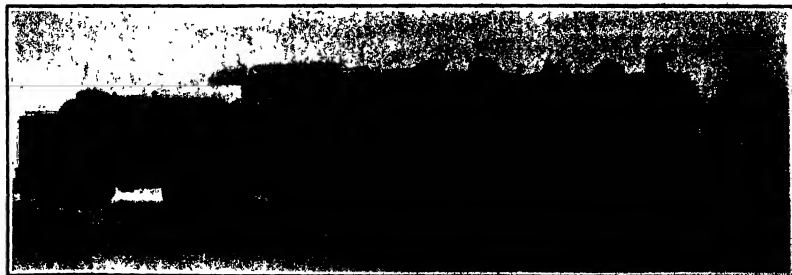
of the engine. The tractive power working compound is 105,000 pounds, and the calculated horse-power under ordinary working is over 2,500.

The huge boiler, 90 inches diameter at its smallest



Largest diameter, 90 inches. Length, 41 feet 10 inches. Weight with water, 40 tons. Firebox, 12 feet 6 inches by 9 feet 6 inches—would make a fair dining room.

The huge boiler is the secret of an American locomotive's great power.



Weight, engine and tender, 411,500 pounds. Weight on drivers, 445,000 pounds. Cylinders: High-pressure, 26 inches by 25 inches; low-pressure, 41 inches by 25 inches. Tractive power: Compound, 105,000 pounds; simple, 125,000 pounds. Boiler pressure, 250 pounds. Heating surface, 6,450 square feet.

THE LATEST OF THE NEW ARTICULATED FREIGHT ENGINES

## Eiffel's Recent Experiments on the Resistance of the Air

BY JACQUES BOYER

Eiffel's first experiments on the resistance of the air, a problem which is now engaging the attention of many scientists because of its importance in aeronautics, were made in 1894 at the famous Eiffel Tower, which was constructed for the Paris Exposition of 1889. The surface on which the pressure of the air was to be studied was allowed to fall from the platform of the second story of the tower, in connection with a chronographic apparatus, which recorded the resistance opposed by the air at each instant. The surface was carried downward by a heavy and dense mass, offering little resistance to the air. This mass was placed above the surface, with which it was connected by springs, which were compressed more or less, according to the air resistance. The velocity of fall ranged from 80 to 120 feet per second. The apparatus was guided in its fall by a vertical cable, and was prevented from striking the ground by a progressive enlargement of this cable beginning at the height of about 70 feet from the ground. In this way the falling body was gradually brought to rest by the action of spring brakes. A tuning fork, making 100 vibrations per second, was attached to the surface. To one of the prongs of this tuning fork was attached a style, which as the fork vibrated, moved vertically over the surface of a vertical cylinder, which was covered with paper coated with lampblack, and was caused to revolve with a speed proportional to the velocity of fall. Hence the record takes the form of a fine sinusoid, the median line or axis of which forms an irregular line around the cylinder. Each point of this axis corresponds to a certain position of the falling body. The number of oscillations between this point and the beginning of the trace, gives the time; the ordinate of the point indicates the tension of the spring, and consequently the pressure of the air on the surface, at that instant; and the abscissa is proportional to the distance through which the body has fallen. Hence the trace gives the position and velocity of the body and the resistance opposed to its motion by the air at every instant. Eiffel experimented in this way with plane surfaces of various forms, square, oblong, circular, continuous, and cut or perforated, with groups of superposed plane surfaces, and even with spherical and conical surfaces. He arrived at the following conclusions: For velocity between 80 and 120 feet per second, the resistance of the air is very approximately proportional to the square of the velocity. The exponent of the velocity differs very slightly from 2 and appears to increase regularly with the velocity, passing through the value 2, at the velocity of 110 feet per second. The pressure per square inch was furthermore found to increase with the area of the surface.

The influence exerted by superposed surfaces on

each other is very great. In some cases the resistance is smaller for a group of surfaces than for a single surface. For surfaces inclined to the direction of the wind, Eiffel formulated in 1903 the following law. For inclinations to the horizon varying between 0 and 10 degrees, the pressure is proportional to the angle, while for inclinations greater than 30 degrees, the resistance is constant.

In order to extend these observations (which have

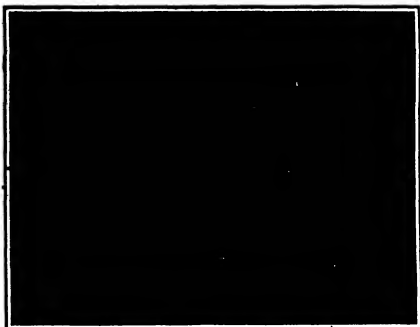


Fig. 8.—The Eiffel aerodynamic balance placed above the experiment room.

been fully described in the *Scientific American*) Eiffel constructed in 1906 an aerodynamic laboratory at Le Champ de Mars, Paris, where he has subsequently conducted experiments with fixed surfaces, exposed to air currents produced by a blower of 50 kilowatt power. By this method he was able not only to obtain the resultant pressure, but to determine the distribution of pressure on both sides of the surface and the movement of the air in its vicinity.

In order to place the surface in conditions as nearly as possible identical with those produced by a natural wind or by movement in the open air, the air current must have so large a cross section that its exterior filaments will not be affected by the presence of the surface. The pressures experienced by the surface are measured by an aerodynamic balance, by which it is possible to determine the horizontal and vertical components, as well as the center of pressure, data which are very important in the construction of aeroplanes. The aerodynamic balance is shown in diagram in Figs. 1 and 3. The experimental surface is attached to the rod C, which is placed parallel to the air current. This rod is attached to a rigid T-shaped frame *DN*, which is capable of motion around a knife-edge *E*. The action of the air current is opposed by

an upward pull at *f*, produced by the weight *P*, in the balance above. When equilibrium is established the moment of the forces which tend to move the experimental surface and its support round the knife edge *E*, can be computed from the weight in the scale pan. Two weighings are made, when the air is at rest and when it is in motion at known velocity. The moment produced by the air current is the difference of the two results. The other end of the rod *B* carries a second knife edge *H*, which is directed upward and which can be brought to bear against its seat by shortening the rod *H*, by means of the eccentric *Q*. In this way the moment of the air pressure around *E* can be measured. Thus it is possible to measure the moments of the pressure with respect to two points, further more, as the rod *C* can be rotated about its axis, the elements of the resultant pressure upon an inclined surface can be determined by making four measurements, at azimuths differing by a right angle. The vertical part *D* is a rod of cast steel, which is capable of slight motion in a sheath attached to the floor of the room above, on which the balance stands. This sheath which is very narrow and is located in front and behind, protects the vertical rod from the air current, without appreciably affecting the latter. The horizontal part *F* is provided with a pair of knife edges at each end. The knife edges at the front or windward end *A* are directed downward and backward, while those of the other end *B* are directed upward and backward. The seats of these knife edges have projections, which prevent the knife edge from moving along the grooves in which they turn. If moving a lower, the knife edges in front can be lifted from their seats to protect them from wear, except during the actual experiment. The rod *H*, which connects the frame *B* with the beam of the balance, touches these parts only by means of knife edges. In short all the moving parts of the apparatus turn on knife edges, and the friction is negligible. The T-shaped piece *DN* weighs more than 100 pounds. This great weight is not an inconvenience but serves two useful purposes, by lessening and damping the secondary oscillations, due to small variations in the force of the air currents and by making the equilibrium of the balance stable in every relative position of the current and the surface. The entire apparatus is supported by a massive wooden platform, about 8 feet square, which rests on a double layer of sleepers, buried 10 feet below the floor of the room and lying parallel with the direction of the air current.

The current of air is drawn through a tube 4½ feet in diameter, and every precaution is taken to keep its strength uniform during the experiment. The air is drawn from a large closed room in which the surface



Fig. 6.—Experiment room of Eiffel's aerodynamic laboratory.



Fig. 7.—The inlet of the blower.



Fig. 8.—Arrangement of apparatus for measuring pressures at various points of the surface.

is placed near the inlet of the blower, and not at its outlet, as is usually done. The air which leaves a blower is subjected to irregular disturbances, which cannot be overcome sufficiently to produce uniform and constant velocity over the entire surface. The pressure exerted upon the surface is transmitted to the balance in the room above, where the observer is stationed. The air enters the experiment room through a circular diaphragm in parallel flange at the opposite end of the room, as the mouth of the conduit which leads to the blower and which contains two iron wire gratings of 2 1/2 inch mesh, placed about 40 inches apart which almost completely eliminate all irregularities of flow. The blower leaves the blower through a conduit which gradually enlarges and serves still further to assure regularity of flow. Hence, the velocity and direction of the air current are uniform throughout its whole section and, as the apparatus is entirely enclosed, it is not affected by the wind outside.

The velocities of the air current are deduced from the readings of manometers, and the results have been verified in the following manner. One of the surfaces exposed to the current was perforated with a large number of holes, in each of which was constructed a screw, having at its center an orifice 1/50 inch in diameter. By measuring with a small manometer the pressure produced behind each of these orifices, and integrating the result, the same resultant force was had been indicated by the balance was obtained.

We cannot here relate in detail all the interesting results which Riffel and his assistant Adon Riffel have already obtained in the laboratory. We will mention only a few of the more important conclusions.

Riffel has proved that the value of the horizontal component, or resist force, to the advance of the horizon, while the vertical component attains a maximum at an inclination of 15 degrees, and thereafter diminishes very rapidly, and vanishes at 90 degrees, i. e., when the plane is vertical.

The surfaces employed in these experiments had a plane of symmetry parallel to the wind. In order to determine the directions of the air filaments to this plane, a short and very light wire, attached to the end of a rod, was placed at various points of the plane, and the position and direction of the wire were determined as accurately as possible. In most cases it was found that especially near the front edge of the surface, the direction of the wire fluctuated rapidly between two fixed limits. This fluctuation in the direction of the wire is due to the fact that at any instant the air flows according to a definite, but not very stable, system so that only a very small influence is required to pass from one system to another. The various possible systems of flow could be approximately determined by careful observation and comparison of the directions of the wire.

Fig. 3 shows the directions of the air filaments near a square surface, the plane of which makes an angle of 45 degrees with the direction of the current. Fig. 4 shows the directions of the stream lines near a surface inclined 30 degrees to the current. It will be observed that these lines are very variable and consequently very visible. The same fact is shown when the surface is perpendicular to the current. Fig. 5 shows the average direction of the air at various points in this case. In the two regions inclosed by the dotted lines, the disturbance is so great that no mean direction of flow could be determined.

In regard to the center of pressure, this coincides with the center of figure if the surface is horizontal, gradually moves forward as the inclination increases

to 15 degrees, and thence recedes as the inclination is increased, and again attains the center of figure when the surface becomes perpendicular to the current. Finally, Riffel indicates the almost universal preference of aviators for curved sustaining surfaces, and proves that, for a given resistance to forward movement, the curved surface always develops a greater lifting potential than the plane surface, especially at small inclinations.

#### The Transit of Halley's Comet.

The transit of Halley's comet and the expected immersion of the earth in the tail of that historic body have proven once more what may happen to the best-laid plans of mathematicians. The transit undoubtedly occurred, but whether or not the earth really encountered the tail seems to be a matter of considerable doubt. When the night of May 18th came, and the scientific world was all agog, the tail was so curved that the passage of the earth through it seemed only remotely possible. On the morning of the 20th a broad band of light that stretched along the horizon for a distance varying from 120 to 160 degrees pro-

ved, after the heaviest showers of meteoric fire, and leaves the tail unbroken.

Halley's comet must be all the observing astronomers agree to have been the last of the century. The more important astronomical observations of the world made by some of the astronomers at the 18th and 19th of May, for the express purpose of observing the comet, were made forth by the United States Hydrographic Office to wireless operators, charging them to note any unusual and unusual effects on their instruments, with great care.

The expedition which was sent to the Hawaiian Islands by the Astronomical and Astrophysical Society of America for the purpose of observing the transit, received a preliminary report of complete inability to observe any transit whatever. This was more or less confirmed by Mr. Phillips at the Cape of Good Hope. The comet of 1881 was followed by him "continuously right into the boiling of the limb." No comet or had it touched it, than it vanished as if destroyed. So sudden was the disappearance, that the comet was at first believed to have passed behind the sun. As a matter of fact, the observers at the Cape had witnessed a genuine transit. The experience of the comet at its Hawaiian Islands with Halley's comet seems to have been exactly similar. On the whole, this agreement seems to present theories that the bulk of a comet is much too dimly to be detected in the blinding glare of our central luminary.

Although the passage of the earth through the tail of Halley's comet turned out to be an extraordinary disappointment, it is unfair to charge our astronomical astronomers with incompetence. A comet's tail is so capricious, so fluctuating a structure, it changes with such startling rapidity, that the predictions of any astronomer with regard to its behavior must always be stated with some reserve.

The tail of Halley's comet has been conducted itself in a most whimsical fashion. In the middle of February, it was some 40 million miles long. In April, it seemed to have vanished entirely. Then it grew again, until finally it attained a length of some 100 million miles. It seems to have split into many late three moons or less well defined parts. When we consider that Morehouse's comet of 1908 (comet C, 1908) exhibited some extraordinary changes; that it repeatedly formed tails, which were dissipated to drift out bodily into space, until they finally appeared away; that in several cases tails were twisted or curved; that if they had gone out in a sheet or less spiral form; that some of material connected with the tail would become visible at some distance from the head, where apparently no supply had reached it from the nucleus; that, several times, the matter of the tail was condensed, condensed, condensed, condensed, and that at one time the entire tail was drawn forward and violently curved perpendicular to the radial vector in the greatest direction of the tail, even though the comet was moving away from the sun, it is evident that a comet presents important problems for the study of astronomers. It is no wonder that Halley's comet has been so much studied that they, in some

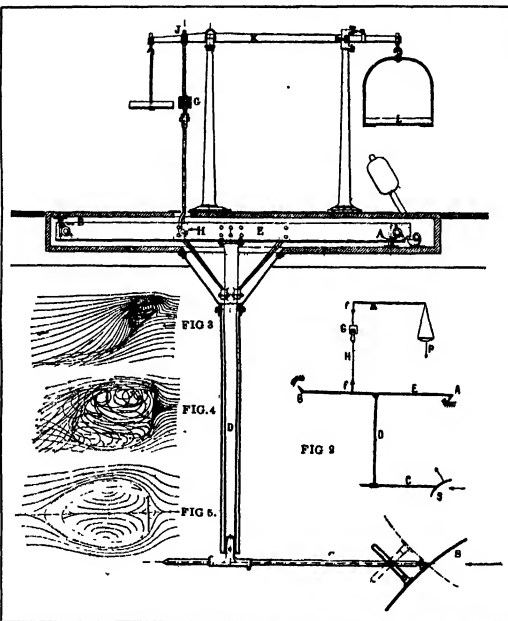


Fig. 1 The Riffel aerodynamic balance. Fig. 2 Diagram of the balance. Fig. 3 Direction of stream lines near a square plate inclined 45° to the air current. Fig. 4 Stream lines near a square plate inclined 30° to the air current. Fig. 5 Stream lines near a square plate perpendicular to the air current.

claimed indignantly that the earth was still unbroken, and that contrary to expectations, the comet was still in the east. Prof. W. W. Campbell, of the Lick Observatory, saw the comet visibly in the eastern sky. According to him, the tail was at least 10 degrees long and lagged far behind the radial vector. Because of the angle of 15-odd degrees which separates the earth's orbit from that of the comet, the curvature of the tail, to which this extraordinary misadventure may probably be traced, probably prevented the earth from coming in contact with it.

All the scientific expeditions which have been sent out to various parts of the earth will probably come back with nothing to report. Some of these scientific expeditions must have proceeded to their destinations at considerable expense. Thus Prof. Kristiansen, of the University of Christiania, went to Kautokevi in the northern part of Norway, for the purpose of noting whether electrical and magnetic effects might be attributed to the comet's tail, and particularly to observe the relation of the aurora borealis to the comet. He has his own theory that the particles of a comet's tail are so highly electrified that they, in some



## THE CARTAGO EARTHQUAKE.

BY PROF. HENRI DE HEMER, COSTA RICA STATE COLLEGE.

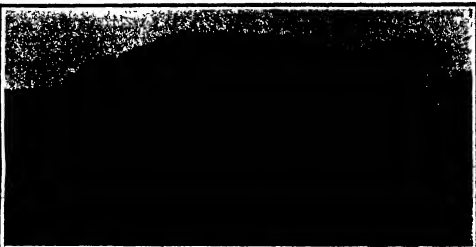
On May 4th, at 6 50 P. M., the city of Cartago, former capital of Costa Rica, was wiped out of existence by an explosive earthquake which lasted but a few

seconds. The destructive motion was mainly vertical and began suddenly, that is, without the preliminary shocks which usually give most people time enough to run out from their houses. Immediately after the heavy up-and-down motion came a long series of smaller

shocks, among which a primary motion was perceptible. The shock caused by the instantaneous fall of houses and public buildings was so great that many people thought they had escaped death by crushing only to die of suffocation. Twenty thousand people



A corner of the Palace de la Paz



El Palacio de la Paz (Palace of Peace) gift of Cartago, just completed.



A primary school.



House of Foot Trogo, who was killed on the sidewalk.



Rear view of the wrecked convent.



Front facade of the convent. Note the absolute wracking of the masonry towers.



Top of church tower badly torn, splintered and broken by the shock.

TERRIBLE RESULTS OF THE "EXPLOSIVE" EARTHQUAKE AT CARTAGO, COSTA RICA.

are left without shelter. As the writer is sending this warning (May 24) 190 corpses have been dug out of the ruins. That number is rapidly increasing. The number of the wounded is not yet known. They are carried daily, by special trains, to San José. The destruction and suffering are intense. Persons who wish to help may do so through the American legation in San José.

During the year 1909 small earthquakes in Cartago had been rather frequent, and the writer, who had a seismograph in the Cartago College, began to send regular reports to the recently founded Strasbourg Central Bureau of the International Association of Seismology. On April 15th, 1910, shortly after midnight, came a first warning of the impending catastrophe. In the form of a series of earthquakes, the third of which shattered many houses, destroyed some poorly built walls, and played great havoc among bottles and earthenware. This earthquake was generally felt on the whole Costa Rican plateau. On the following days additional shocks, mostly of intensity III to V (Riedel and Ford scale) followed at the rate of some three to eight a day. The population in Cartago and San José became alarmed, and erected in the streets and public parks tents and sheds, in which they slept. The

#### HOW TO ACT IN CASE OF FIRE. BY ROBERT COLEMAN.

Perhaps no single speculation is capable of producing so instantaneous and so widespread an alarm as the cry of "Fire!" Nor is this surprising when we remember that the fire fund is each year responsible for an almost incalculable loss, both of life and of property.

Of all emergencies, none more than an outbreak of the fire impetively demands a preservation of one's power to act with coolness and decision. Often, by prompt and well-directed action, the threatened catastrophes may be averted, the loss of property and what is still more important, the loss of human life, may be avoided.

Fire drill nowadays has its place in the routine of every well-conducted scholastic establishment, nor can it be doubted that the respect for prompt and intelligent action thus inculcated in the minds of young people of both sexes has, by emergency, proved the means of preventing appalling disaster. But while this capacity for combined action is very desirable, there seems to be a danger of fostering it at the expense of what one may term "fire education." Every child should be taught by means of precept

tor's head, but the carbonic-acid gas with which the water is charged helps to smother the flames.

How to act for one's safety, or to assist another, in the case of burning clothing cannot be better told than in the words of Prof. John Marshall. He says: "If the dress of a woman catches fire, she should at once lie down on the floor, and should crawl in this position either to a bell pull or a door, and call for assistance; or she should get herself in a rug or blanket in the event of a man rendering help he should at once lay the patient down take off his coat and roll her in it, unless he can obtain a blanket or rug or roll her on the carpet. If a woman requires assistance, she must be careful not to allow her own clothing to touch the victim, but to hold a rug or blanket in front of herself while approaching the flames."

Prompt action without rushiness or self-balking hurry, is the keynote of success in fighting the fire. This applies especially to those who wake from sleep to find the house on fire. Not a moment should be lost, but there should be no wild rushing from a window to a door and back again. First an attempt should be made to get down the stairs. To escape through passages filled with suffocating smoke, the a



Blowing out from overturned lamp extinguished by use of floor.



To avoid drawing burnt or scalded limb from clothing cut apparel away with sharp scissors.



Manner of tying sheets, etc., together to form an escape rope.



Crawling method of escape from passages filled with smoke. Handkerchief holds wet sponge in place.



A syphon makes a handy and an efficient fire extinguisher.



Method of using knitted blanket or sheet rope for escape by a window.

#### HOW TO ACT IN CASE OF FIRE.

shocks had somewhat decreased in number and intensity when the fatal issue came.

Cartago is situated at an altitude of 4,700 feet, at the very foot of the huge volcano Irazu, which towers 11,500 feet above sea level. The Irazu volcano is considered as extinct, the only remnant of its former activity being a few fumaroles or steam jets, located at a considerable distance from the now silent and cold craters. At no time before or after the catastrophe have the fumaroles shown any signs of increased activity. Moreover, the seismograph in Cartago gave for most earthquakes a direction which was almost perpendicular to that of the volcano. However, a few days before the destructive shock, the direction of the earthquakes became variable, and for some of these coincided with that of the Irazu. On May 4th the needs of the apparatus began writing the last chapter of the drama, and while so doing jumped out several times from the glass plate. Then the seismograph, which is a heavy inverted pendulum contained in a box some three feet high, was violently thrown against the wall; the glass plate fell from its shelf, and was broken in two.

Among the public buildings which are in ruins is the beautiful Palace of Paez, a gift of Mr. Andrew Carnegie. The palace had just been completed, the interior only being left unfinished.

and experiment, what to do when a fire breaks out in one's house. He should be instructed how to go to work coolly and methodically either to extinguish the flames, or—if necessary—to escape from the build. Lesson of this kind, imparted by practical methods, would become a source of strength in after life and would go far to check the recurrence of fire, out breaks, with their untold loss of life and capital.

Take, for example, the case of an overturned oil lamp. There is a sudden and alarming blaze, but if action is taken at once, the damage may be confined to the carpet, cloth or what not upon which the lamp actually lies. To throw water on the conflagration is useless. The burning oil will only be forced into a larger area. The aim should be to absorb the oil and smother the flame as much as possible, and this may best be done by means of some non-flammable powder—such as flour, sand, earth from the garden or anything of the kind.

Another point worth remembering is the use of the soda-water syphon as an extinguisher. Suppose that a lamp or candle has ignited a curtain and that the flame has run up the fabric. A syphon of soda water held as shown in the accompanying photograph, and squirted over the flames, will work wonders. Not only does the force with which the liquid leaves the tube allow of its being directed well above the opera-

tor handkerchief over the mouth and nose, then crawl on the hands and knees, for the smoke tends to rise with the hot air and will be less dense close to the floor.

But if the whole of the lower part of the house is burning and escape by means of the stairs is impossible, preparations must be made for leaving through the window. Tie all the sheets and blankets together by means of "reef knots" which will not slip no matter how much strain is put upon them. Then drop the bedding or mattress from the window in order that there may be some kind of break in the event of a possible fall. Finally make one end of your life-providing fire-escape fast to the bedpost from the other end from the window, and after making sure that it reaches to or almost to the ground go down it boldly hand over hand. It should be added that in the case of inexperienced persons there is always considerable risk of a dangerous fall resulting from this means of exit, therefore it should be undertaken only when all other means of escape have failed.

In conclusion a few words may be added respecting the treatment of burns and scalds prior to the arrival of a doctor. The main point to bear in mind is that the air is to be excluded from the affected part as quickly as possible. This may be done by

(Continued on page 441)

## THE HEAVENS IN JUNE

BY HENRY NORRIS RUSSELL, PH.D.



**T**HERE, though less exciting from an astronomical standpoint than May, is still a month of more than usual interest. Halley's comet will, of course, still be the main object of attention. At the beginning of the month it is excellently placed for observation, about midway between Regulus and Alpha and  $\gamma$  Hydrae—on a dark sky, setting after 11 P. M. It will however be much less conspicuous than the week before, and will seem to shrink and fade rapidly as it recedes from us. Its distance on the 1st is about fifty million miles, and this increases steadily, at the rate of three and one-half million miles a day—to which the earth's motion in one direction contributes about one and one-half million miles, and the comet's motion in the opposite direction the remainder.

Its apparent motion in the sky is slow, for it is moving almost directly away from us. It still travels eastward and southward among the stars, continuing the line of its earlier path but very much more slowly, covering only 13 deg during June, and 6 deg during July.

During the first ten days of the month it will still be a fine naked-eye object. Then the new moon will begin to flood the evening sky with light, and drown it out. By the time she is out of the way again the comet will be 125 million miles from us, and equally far from the sun, so that little can be seen of it without a field-glass. With the aid of the latter it can probably be followed all through the month.

The display which this comet has given us during May is probably the finest of the last fifty years.

Curiously enough, its only rival in the last quarter-century is the great comet which appeared unexpectedly last January. This was at no time much brighter than Halley's comet (owing to its close approach to the sun) but its tail was not so long and it was too deep in the evening twilight to be seen to the best advantage.

Daniel's comet of 1807, though intrinsically of about the same magnitude as Halley's comet, was never within fifty millions miles of the earth, and so never afforded nearly as fine a spectacle.

That of this is a long barren interval. The last previous comet which was at all conspicuous to the naked-eye was the great one of 1832. This was one of the grandest on record, and had a tail over 100 million miles in length, but this was directed almost away from the earth, so that it never looked more than 25 deg long—as against over 80 deg for Halley's comet before it left the morning sky. Before this comet (Vogel's comet of 1874, with a tail of 80 deg long but the last one), fully comparable in appearance with our visitor of this year, is the great comet of 1861, whose tail was at one time 120 deg. It appeared length. As in the present case, the earth passed through it so that it never looked more than a few degrees illuminated of the sky on the night of passage. Three years earlier, in 1858, appeared Donati's comet by common consent the finest of the last half of the nineteenth century.

Several of these comets, especially that of 1853, were really much larger affairs than Halley's, but the very favorable circumstances of the present return make it comparable to a spectacle, with any of them, so far as can be judged from the records.

The last news at the moment of writing is that its

head proved perfectly transparent during its transit across the sun, and that its tail is so much curved in its own plane that the earth did not reach it till long after daybreak on the 19th. Before dawn this morning it was a magnificent object, extending from the eastern horizon half way across the sky. Still it was lost in the Milky Way. Its total length up to the invisible head was fully 130 deg, according to observations here, and 140 deg as seen at the Lick Observatory a few hours later.

## THE HEAVENS

As our marvelous visitor fades in the western heavens, we may turn once more to the old familiar constellations. To the north, below the Pole, is Camelopard, low on the horizon. Above her is Cepheus, and higher still the Little Bear, standing poised on its tail above the Pole. Between this and the Great Bear are the long coils of Draco. Our initial above the truly formidable aspect of this monster, whose form, coils and all, can be traced with decided likeness among the

the Crow and Owl rising upon its back. She sweeps far down below Virgo, near many of the stars of the Centaur and the Wolf. Observe in low latitudes, near the tropics, one see below these the two brilliant stars of the constellation which, though among the most brilliant in the heavens, have no Greek, Latin, or Arabic names, being too far south to be known to the ancients. The easternmost of the two, Alpha Centauri, is known to all students of astronomy as our nearest neighbor in the heavens—only half as far away as Sirius, which, so far as is now known, comes next.

Further east, and best seen a little earlier in the evening, is the Southern Cross.

Leo, in the west, and Cancer and Gemini below, complete our list. This region of the sky will be the clearest watched of all during the month, for the comet is there.

## THE PLANETS

Mercury is morning star all through the month, being best observable about the time of his greatest elongation on the 19th, but as he is then south of the sun, and rises little more than an hour before him, the present opportunity is unfavorable.

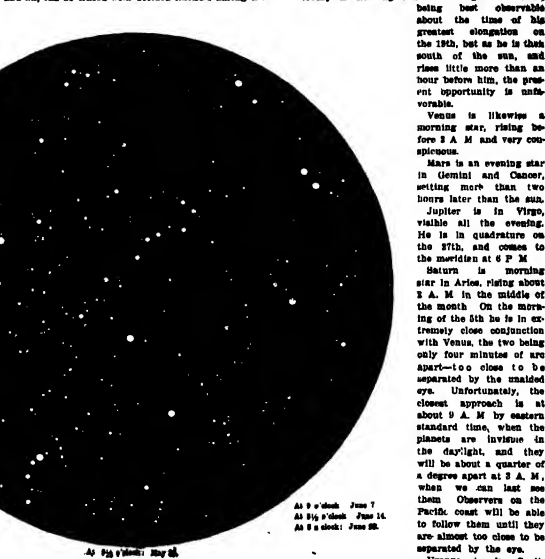
Venus is likewise a morning star, rising before 3 A. M. and very conspicuous.

Mars is an evening star in Gemini and Cancer, setting more than two hours later than the sun. Jupiter is in Virgo, visible all the evening. He is in quadrature on the 1st, and comes to the meridian at 6 P. M.

Saturn is morning star in Aries, rising about 2 A. M. in the middle of the month. On the morning of the 5th he is in extremely close conjunction with Venus, the two being only four minutes of arc apart—too close to be separated by the unaided eye. Unfortunately, the closest approach is at about 9 A. M. by eastern standard time, when the planets are invisible in the daylight, and they will be about a quarter of a degree apart at 3 A. M., when we can last see them. Observe on the Pacific coast will be able to follow them until they are almost too close to be separated by the eye.

Uranus is in Sagittarius, and crosses the meridian about 3 A. M. in the middle of the month. Besides these, we have Mars in the 15th, Neptune in the 15th, and Uranus on the 21st, among the stars of their constellations. The moon is new at 3 A. M. on the 7th, in her first quarter at 11 A. M. on the 14th, full at 3 P. M. on the 21st, and in her last quarter at 11 P. M. on the 28th. She is nearest the earth on the 23d, and furthest away on the 18th. In her course round the heavens she passes Venus and Saturn on the morning of the 15th, and Mars on the 17th. The distance by the time of the planets two days later, happens after the said has risen for the Eastern States, but will be of interest to western observers.

By the addition of meteors to water, it is possible to obtain a mixture in the form of a powder which contains fifty per cent of water, and gives down the characteristic effects of the pure salt, and is in solution with water. The mixture by the same pound formed was less commonly known, and was recently, it is very proved that it is not a necessary one, but a simple mixture, for the salt can be treated in any way, and the mixture of the salt can be made with any amount of water, and the mixture of the salt can be made with any amount of water.



NIGHT SKY: MAY AND JUNE.

stars themselves. The two bright stars  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  in the Dragon's head are very conspicuous. A. Two others, of which only one is shown on the map, make up with these an irregular quadrilateral. The faintest star of this,  $\delta$  Draconis, is an interesting double, separable with a field-glass of high power—the distance of the components being almost exactly one minute of arc. The star  $\epsilon$  Draconis, about midway between the bowl of the Little Dipper and the end of the handle of the Great Dipper, is noteworthy as the pole-star of the ancient Egyptians. About the year 3600 B. C. the celestial pole, in the course of its precessional motion, passed very near this star, so that it held the same place in the heavens then that Polaris does to-day.

To the northeast we see the great cross of Cygnus, and the brilliant Vega, and due east Altair has just risen. Higher up is Hercules, and south of him Ophiuchus, entangled with the Serpent which he carries. Below is right overhead, Antares being some 20 deg. south of the zenith. Low in the southeast is Scorpio, not yet fully risen. On the right and above is the magnificent group of stars, and the extensive one of Virgo, now brightened up by Jupiter, in the southwest. Below this, all along the sky from west to south, stretches the mighty length of Hydra, with

# NEW YEN LAKVIEW GUNNER WAS CAPTURED.

When there have been modifications of the "Dreadnought" design class it was first introduced in 1904. The American modification is distinguished by the center-line arrangement of the gun turrets, the German by the powerful armor and by the regular introduction of the triple turret. It has remained for Italy—the home of constructive genius and the real birthplace of the dreadnought itself—to combine in one ship the best of the triple turret, the triple turret, and the center-line arrangement.

Four ships are under construction for the Mediterranean power. One, the "Dante Alighieri," was laid down last summer, and is to be launched in September. In the case of this vessel, her power has been exaggerated, for instead of carrying twelve 15-inch guns, as reported, she will have only ten. In the case of the other three ships, named "Galea di Cavour," "Leonardo da Vinci," and "Galea Cavour," it is difficult to say whether their power has been under or over rated. According to first accounts, they were to carry eight 14-inch guns. It now turns out, however, that they will have no fewer than thirteen 15-inch weapons. This is a large number of single-barreled guns that have never been mounted to a modern ship, although the Japanese "Battleship" and "Aki" each carry four 15-inch and the "Mikasa" to say nothing of twelve 6-inch. The arrangement of the guns in the Italian ships is distinctly novel. There will be three through-gun turrets, one forward, one aft, and one amidships, while a twin turret will be placed forward and aft, so as to bring its guns to bear over the lower turret. There will thus be a full broadside of thirteen 15-inch guns, with a fore-and-aft fire of five. The secondary battery will consist of eighteen 4 1/2 inch rapid-fire guns, besides the same number of 3 inch. Three underwater torpedoes would be fitted. The displacement will be 24,000 tons, the main armor belt 15 inches thick, and the speed 23 knots.

The arrangement of the armament in the "Dante Alighieri" is precisely the same as that in the other three ships, save that the amidships turret is approached, and that the after turrets are on a lower level than those forward. As will be seen from the accompanying sketch, the deck runs straight from bow to stern in the three other ships. The "Dante" will have a displacement of 15,000 tons and a speed of 23 knots. The four ships are to be completed in 1912.

## NEW YEN LAKVIEW GUNNER WAS CAPTURED.

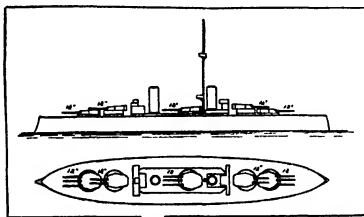
Last week's issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN contained a description of an oil well in the midway district near Bakersfield, Cal., which on March 16th suddenly blew out the drilling tools and became the Lakeview Gusher, the largest oil gusher in California, blowing out at the rate of over 40,000 barrels of heavy crude oil a day. The force of the gas pressure was so terrific that the derrick was ripped to pieces, and oil spray was literally sent for miles in every direction. How to stop this well was a serious problem. For several weeks no attempt whatever was made to check the flow. A terrific tank was then made to fasten down a wooden roof over the head of the well.

Although the roof was made of 14 by 14 timbers, the gusher tore them to splinters. The following plan was then successfully adopted: The gusher had by this time broken out in several small oil fountains in the vicinity of the main stream. These additional openings were mothered by means of successive intervals of brush and sand. A stockpile of heavy blocks was then built around the spouting well. The walls of the stockpile were 15 feet high. On one side of the stockpile a slanting runway was constructed. A heavy raft 15 by 30 (approximately) was then built, resting on this runway like a ship on the verge. Heavy wire cables were belayed to the four corners of the raft. The cables at the ship-like end were added that to heavy pipes buried in the sand around the well. The cables attached to the ship-like end were then run in by the rope, with the rope over the top of the stockpile. At a favorable hour the cables were hauled taut, and the raft was lowered into the well. The two heavy

logs, which had served to haul up the raft, were then made fast to buried pipes. The result was that the stream of oil was hurried against—that was virtually a raft anchored in midair. The raft, held up by the force of oil, is about 15 feet above the mouth of the well and just above the stockpile. Although this force not actually stops the gush of oil, it has very much lowered the height of the fountain, and thus has resulted in a vast saving of oil.

## A National Good Roads Laboratory.

The Agricultural Appropriation Bill approved March 3rd, 1908, contained an item appropriating \$10,000 to enable the Secretary of Agriculture to make inquiries into systems of road management through the United States, to make investigations in regard to the best methods of road making and proper publications and assist agricultural colleges and experiment stations in disseminating information on



NEW ITALIAN BATTLESHIP WHICH WILL BE THE FIRST TO CARRY THIRTEEN TWELVE-15 INCH GUNS.

this subject. In pursuance of this authority, the Office of Road Inquiry was established.

During the next two fiscal years the appropriations and the wording of the bill remained the same. The appropriation for the fiscal year 1907 was reduced to \$5,000, and a provision was added authorizing the investigation of road-making materials in the several States. The appropriation remained \$5,000 annually during the fiscal years 1908, 1909, and 1900, and no change was made in the wording of the bill, although the name of the office was changed from "Road Inquiry" to "Public Road Inquiry" in the fiscal year 1901.

The Agricultural Bill for 1901 carried an appropriation for \$14,000 and provided for conducting experiments in the city of Washington and elsewhere and collecting, digesting, reporting, and illustrating the results of such experiments. The appropriation for 1902 was \$20,000, and the bill provided for the investigation of the chemical and physical character of road materials. The language of the appropriation

work of the office is divided into three branches, namely, the laboratory work, which is organized as the Division of Tests, the engineering work, which is known as the Division of Highways, and the Administrative, road management, and miscellaneous work which is organized as the Division of Road Management.

As the Division of Tests, which may be regarded as a National Good Roads Laboratory, is considered to be the most completely equipped road material laboratory in the world we have the following detailed description of its equipment. The Assistant Director and Chemist has charge of the Division of Tests. He has as his assistants a testing engineer and an assistant chemist. The chemical laboratory is under the immediate direction of the assistant chemist and the physical testing of materials is under the testing engineer. There is also in the Division of Tests a petrographic laboratory with a petrographer in charge. The routine testing of materials conducted by the Division of Tests consists of microscopic and chemical analyses of specimens to determine their mineral composition and proper classification, and physical tests to determine their cementing value, hardness, toughness, resistance to wear, water absorption, and density (Bullethin No. 28 Bureau of Chemistry).

In addition to the routine tests special studies are made regarding the use and composition of asphalt, oils, tars, compounds various emulsions, and salt solutions, with the view of preventing dust and preserving road surfaces (Bullethin No. 44). Other investigations in close research into the decomposition of rock powders (Bullethin No. 28, Circular No. 10, and Farmer's Bulletin No. 239), the testing of cements for use in paving brick, bricklaying, and sand (Bullethin No. 27 and Farmer's Bulletin No. 11), and the corrosion of iron with acids, brines, and fence wire (Bullethin No. 28 and Farmer's Bulletin No. 225).

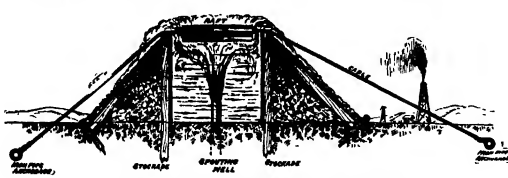
The equipment for the physical testing laboratory is as follows:

Large impact machine for testing paving brick, impact machine for testing binding power of rock dust, impact machine for testing the toughness of rocks, Olsen testing machine for compression testing and compression tests, capacity 20,000 pounds, Richie testing machine for testing tacks, road-building, and compressive strength capacity 200,000 pounds, double platens, capacity 20,000 pounds, for molding briquettes, tension balance, abrasion machine for testing resistance to wear of rocks, vacuum pump, diamond saw and grinding table for making thin rock sections for microscopic examination, ball mill for grinding rock samples into powder, centrifugal pump, diamond rock drill small rock crusher, grinding disc for testing the hardness of rock mass, battery of pebble mills for pulverizing rock pow-

ders, Westinghouse air compressor, hot air bath, gas furnace, and a complete cement testing outfit consisting of a Fairbank's torsion machine, Gilli more needles, standard slabs, briquette molds, soaking tanks, etc.

The equipment for the machine shop where tooling machines and other apparatus are made and repaired is as follows: Speed lathe, engine lathe, drill press, power hack saw, precision lathe, saw table, universal lathe. The chemical laboratory is equipped with the necessary chemical apparatus used in making analyses of rocks (clays, cements, and bituminous substances). It is provided with compressed air, vacuum, gas, hot and cold water, steam, and electricity. The petrographic laboratory is provided with a petrographic microscope of the latest Fues model, which enables the usual attachments is provided with a rotating stage of 360 degrees, and in the determination of very low doubly refracting mineral, and a Schwartman scale for the measurement of optical axial angles. The methods used for examining and classifying rocks are fully set forth in Bulletin No. 31.

The road material laboratory was established in December, 1900, and from that time until November 20th, 1907 3,018 samples of road material were tested from practically every State in the Union. The results of tests made up to January 1st, 1908 and a brief description of the present methods of making routine tests are shown on Form No. 25.



ARRANGEMENT OF STOCKPILE AND RAFT WITH WHICH THE LAKEVIEW GUSHER WAS CAPTURED.

hills has remained practically unchanged up to the present time, except that the name of the office was changed from "Public Road Inquiry" to the "Office of Public Roads" and a statutory organization was provided in the Agricultural Bill approved March 3rd, 1905. In the appropriation bill for 1909, the rent or purchase of road-making machinery was forbidden. The total appropriations to the fiscal year 1909 total an amount to \$473,440. The estimate for 1909-10 as approved by the Secretary of Agriculture is for \$194,440.

The Office of Public Roads is under the jurisdiction of the National Department of Agriculture as shown above. It has no administrative duties and exercises no control whatever over the roads of the United States, its functions being entirely scientific and educational. No appropriations are made by the national government for roads except on government reservations. At the present time there are sixty-seven offices and employees on the rolls of the Office



## NEW TWO-CYCLE MOTORS

DEFECTS OF THE TWO-CYCLE ENGINE AND HOW THEY ARE OVERCOME

A belief is growing among gas engine experts that the greatest improvements in gas and gasoline motors must come in the future from some type of engine which gets increased power from its cylinders by eliminating the idle revolution of the four-cycle type. It is conceded that four-cycle design has practically reached the limit of its possibilities, the advent of the automobile having drawn the services of the brightest men in the gas engine field, the result of whose work is seen today in the splendid examples of gas engines found in even the cheapest kind of automobiles. However many designers feel as was expressed by one prominent engineer, that "it is inconceivable that the four-stroke cycle with its small utilization of one-half of the piston stroke will be accepted as the finality of development, the two-stroke cycle as now applied is equally unsatisfactory for reasons that are familiar to all students of the question."

It is apparent that the chief efforts toward improvement are now being made with a view to eliminating the defects heretofore common to the two-cycle type. The chief defects of the usual two-cycle engine may be summed up as follows:

1 The explosive mixture is taken into the crank case resulting in leakage and in possible explosions in the base.

2 The new charge comes into direct contact with the hot burned gases, causing possible pre-ignition and some loss of gas at the exhaust.

3 The charge is not large enough in volume because the crank case is in an altogether inefficient compressor on account of its very large clearance. This means a small charge and also a large percentage of dead gas left in the cylinder.

4 The power is not increased materially by the double number of explosions because of the weak charges and poor economy.

Several recent two-cycle engines meet these defects in different ways. The Newcomb engine was recently exhibited before the Automobile Club of America. This is a two-cycle engine using the crank case to supply air only. This air blows out the previous charge and furnishes oxygen to burn the next charge of fuel. The fuel is injected directly into the cylinder from a plunger pump, the quantity being controlled by rock timing the stroke of the pump. The gasoline is directed downward into a small cup at the head of the piston. When the piston rises this cup or pocket is in the vicinity of the spark plug so that there is always an ignitable mixture near the plug even when running on very light load. This arrangement avoids several of the defects of ordinary two-cycle engines. The charge is limited, however by the amount of air which can be supplied from the crank case, which would scarcely exceed 75 per cent of the displacement of the piston, leaving the other 25 per cent and the clearance space filled with burned gas. This engine will undoubtedly be more powerful, economical, and reliable than the ordinary two-cycle motor.

Another improved type of two-cycle engine is that employing a differential piston. This engine leaves out the crank case entirely as a means of supplying



Fig. 1.—Short two cycle motor.

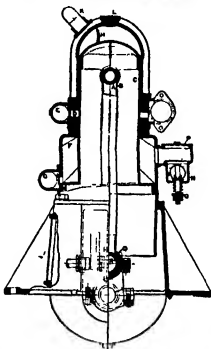


Fig. 2.—Longitudinal section through the Bruderkick two-cycle motor

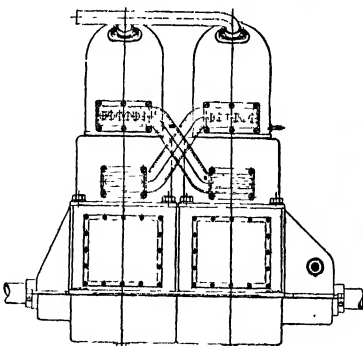
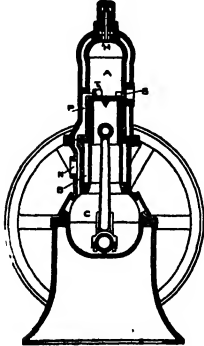
Fig. 3.—Side elevation of Bruderkick two-cycle automatic motor.  
NEW TWO-CYCLE MOTORS

Fig. 4.—Section of Dawley engine.

the charge or air and compresses the charge partially in an annular chamber formed by a differential or two-diameter piston. Two cylinders are worked together on the lower piston of one compressing the charge for the other. This permits getting a full charge and large capacity, though the loss of fuel through the exhaust is likely to be greater. The makers claim that base firing are eliminated. This type of motor is used on the Elmore automobile and a light-weight engine weighing but 2½ pounds per horse-power and comparable with the design of J. W. Bruderkick is now being manufactured for aeroplanes and other aeronautic purposes.

A good idea of the method of operation of this motor can be had from the diagrams we reproduce. The cross-section of one of the cylinders shows the large compressor piston on the lower end of the working piston C. On the down stroke the large piston draws in a charge of gas from the carburetor through the automatic inlet valve M. On the up stroke it compresses this charge in the chamber F above it and in the pipe G leading across to the inlet port of the second cylinder. Just before the piston of the second cylinder opens the exhaust port, it uncovers the inlet port D and the charge compressed in the transfer pipe G E leading from cylinder one to cylinder two, passes into the cylinder and is directed upward by the deflector B. In the motor shown, the connecting rods A are of steel tubing for the purpose of saving weight. The spark plugs are located in the dome-shaped cylinder heads, where they are most effective in igniting the mixture. This type of two-cycle motor offers the advantage that there is no possibility of leakage of the initial compression after the crankshaft bearings have become worn, and there is no necessity of making these bearings heavier and longer than usual for the prevention of undue wear. Neither is there any trouble from back fire in the crank case, which sometimes cause serious damage.

The new cycle motor is a recent invention of C. A. Dawley, member of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers. This engine has some features of both of those described above. It uses a differential piston and handles the charge in an annular chamber, but it also compresses air in the crank case. Owing to the enlarged diameter of the piston in the crank case, the air supply is in excess of the piston displacement. The air displaces the exhaust and scavenges the cylinder before the new charge is admitted. The admission of the new charge is controlled by the valve F in Fig. 5, and the timing is such as to introduce the charge after the cylinder is cleared of burned gases, but before compression commences. This evidently will give a full charge of air and fuel and prevent any loss of fuel or premature ignition. When used on gasoline this engine may use a carburetor, in which case an extra rich mixture would be drawn into chamber B, while the additional air required for combustion would come from the crank case. Or a fuel pump may be used as in the Newcomb engine, except that in this case the gasoline would be delivered into port M and then blown into the cylinder by the charge of

(Continued on page 446)

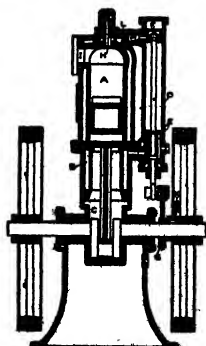


Fig. 5.—Section of Dawley engine.

# The Home Laboratory

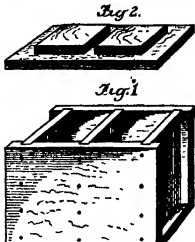
## A HOUSE AND READY GALVANIC BATTERY.

The best battery for experimental work in the workshop or laboratory is one of the rough-and-ready type that will give a moderate current of electricity of four three or four amperes with an electromotive force of 1.5 to 2 volts. Such a battery is suited for the exciting of a powerful electromagnet, for magnetizing purposes, operating an induction coil, and for electroplating, electro-brassing, or electro-coppering either by the hot or cold process, and for electroplating. The following description will enable anyone who can handle woodworking tools to construct such a battery consisting of two cells capable of being coupled so as to give the current of one large cell or in series so as to yield the current of one cell and the electromotive force of two. This latter plan is the one best suited for coppering, brassing or electro-nickeling. This type of battery has been used, and is still used by the writer for all the purposes mentioned, for over five years, so it has been put well to the test of experience.

The wood used in making the battery must be thoroughly well seasoned. An old board that has been kept years in an office or a loft will prove to be just the thing required. The board should be 1 inch thick. Cut a strip 5 feet long and 8 inches wide. Plane this smooth all over and then cut three pieces 13 1/2 inches long, and three pieces 1 1/2 inches long. The latter will form the ends and central division of the battery. The side pieces must be grooved so as to receive these pieces with a very nice fitting joint as shown in Fig. 1. The bottom piece must be made as shown in Fig. 2, with two pieces of wood, not exactly 5 inches square, this also being the inside measurement of each cell. These squares must be held in place by means of screws that are inserted from the underside of the bottom board and penetrate to within 1/4 inch of the outer surface of the squares. They should also be coated with a thick shellac varnish (not glue) before being fastened in place. The grooves in the side pieces and the ends of the division pieces must also be well coated with thick shellac varnish, after which the pieces should be driven tightly together and held by nails or screws. Nails driven diagonally make the best job because they will draw the woodwork together more firmly than screws, and resist direct strain better. The object of using shellac is to insure a perfect acid-proof joint, and the 5-inch square pieces where pressed into position form a bottom so firm that no acid liquid will penetrate.

When the battery has been put together it must be lined on the inside with a coating of burning hot pitch. Use an old sawpan to melt the pitch in. Pour some into one of the cells and tilt the battery first one side then another until all four sides have been submitted to the hot pitch. Pour the pitch back into the sawpan, take a strip of square or flat iron, make one end red hot, and press this into the corners and around the joints at the bottom, so as to secure

brass battery clamps to them with a strip of sheet copper tacked over the top of the carbon block. This is an important item. Its use will protect the brass clamp from being corroded by the acids. The zinc cylinders can be purchased with a copper strip and binding screw attached. The zinc cylinders must be amalgamated by dipping them into sulphuric acid 1 part, water 8 parts, and then rubbing all over inside and outside with quicksilver. Place these zincs in the wooden vessel. Make up a mixture of sulphuric acid 1 pint, water 8 pints in a stoneware pitcher, and allow it to become cold. In another vessel make a mixture of water 4 pints, bicarbonate of sodium or potas-



A HOUSE AND READY GALVANIC BATTERY

sium 12 ounces, sulphuric acid half pint. Allow this acid to become cold. The battery is now charged by pouring the bicarbonate mixture into the porous pots, around the carbon blocks and then pouring the sulphuric acid mixture into the outside space around the zinc cylinders. The battery is now ready for any purpose required and will keep in good action for about six hours continuously. When not in use the zinc cylinders must be removed and placed into a stoneware crock filled with water, and the bicarbonate mixture must be returned to the vessel it was made in. The carbon block can also be stood up and wiped blotting paper or a wide mounted glass bottle. The sulphuric acid mixture can be allowed to remain in the wooden battery cells. For intermittent use such a battery will work well for months and must every requirement for small work, either in the workshop or laboratory. No amount of hard use will injure it, if well put together as described. No acid solutions will affect it, although the liquid may be left in the cells year in and year out.

## SAFE GASOLINE TANKS

BY W. H. WATSON

As gasoline explosions are due to a mixture of gasoline vapor with air (accidentally ignited, of course) I think the air in a gasoline tank could well be replaced either by water or a non-oxidizing gas such as carbon dioxide, after the manner here illustrated.

In the first two designs water is used. In Fig. 1 the weight of the water forces the gasoline out of the lower tank through the stopcock B. The valve C is so constructed that it floats when the water reaches it, closes the opening, and thus prevents the water from flowing out. To refill the tank with gasoline, a suction pump is connected to the stopcock A and the gasoline is siphoned into the lower compartment through the stopcock B. The latter prevents the gasoline from escaping.

Fig. 2 is practically the same, but to discharge the gasoline through the stopcock B air must

be pumped into the lower part to force the water into the gasoline tank above. To refill this tank with gasoline, the stopcock at A is opened, letting the air out and the weight of the water then siphons the gasoline into the tank above through the valve and stopcock B.

In Fig. 3 a carbon dioxide tank is connected to the pipe A and the pressure of the gas then forces the gasoline out through the pipe B.

In Fig. 4 the stopcock A is connected to the water main or pipe when the pressure of the water forces the gasoline out through the stopcock B. The valve C prevents the water from escaping into the gasoline tank through the stopcock B. To refill the tank, the stopcock

A is closed and stopcock D is opened, and the water flowing out through the latter will draw the gasoline into the tank through stopcock B. The valve B is adjusted to sink in gasoline and thus closes the outlet, preventing escape of gasoline through the stopcock D.

## PLUG CONNECTOR

To make a plug connector for use in an electric light socket, all that is required is a turned out incandescent lamp and a number of feet of heavy lamp cord. Break the glass globe out of the lamp, leaving only the base. Then break away the glass tube that protects the leading-in wires, being careful not to injure them. Now untwist about a foot of the lamp cord, scrape the ends clean and slip a short length of rubber tubing over each end. Solder the ends to the leading-in wires in the lamp base and then push the rubber tubes down over the joints. Fill the socket with plaster of Paris, letting it project up above the top of the plug about an inch so as to form an insulated top to screw the plug in by. This plug connector is suitable for small motors, portable lamps, and any other apparatus that draws only a small current. It cannot be used for large currents as the heavy current would fuse the leading-in wires in the plug.

## A SIMPLE APPARATUS FOR EMPTYING CARBONS

BY H. H. CLARK

A very simple, effective, and easily set up apparatus for emptying carbons of acid etc., may be made in the following way from materials found in every laboratory. This will be found to be far superior to the acid pump or the old-fashioned method of tilting the canister, catching the liquid in a jug, and then pouring it into bottles. For no fumes can escape, and this is an important factor when dealing with strong ammonia or hydrochloric acid solutions of salts.

Buy one window full with hydrochloric acid or another liquid any number of bottles from a carboy. Fill every one of the bottles with two-thirds of carboy cork and then through each hole put a piece of glass tubing bent in the form of a right angle with sides about three inches long. Connect one piece of glass tubing in one bottle to another piece in another bottle. It is with a small piece of rubber tubing the few pieces of this bottle with another place in another bottle and so on until you have all the bottles connected up in one straight line.

Connect the free tube at one end of the line with a piece of rubber tubing to a long bent glass tube passing to the bottom of the carboy.

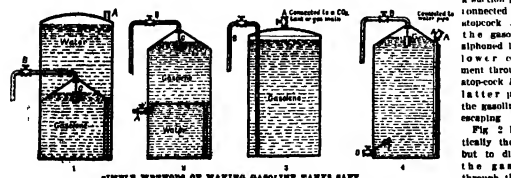
Attach the other free tube at the other end of the row of bottles and a piece of rubber tubing or any other suction apparatus with a piece of thick walled rubber tubing. Then we have the apparatus as illustrated herewith.

Turn on the water tap connected with the filter pump and the acid will be drawn up the tube leading from the carboy and into the first bottle. As soon as this is filled the acid will run into the second bottle, and so on until the carboy is empty or the requisite number of bottles are filled.

If one hasn't many corks all that is necessary is to fill say three or four bottles. When these are filled they may be disconnected and others put in their place. But it must not be forgotten to turn off the water tap and stop the flow of liquid before making the change.



APPARATUS FOR EMPTYING CARBONS



SIMPLE METHODS OF MAKING GASOLINE TANKS SAFE.

a perfect coating of pitch at these joints. Now pour the hot pitch into the cell again so as to be sure that all parts are well covered. Treat the second cell in this manner. Repeat the operation until the tank is finished, the outside by giving it two coats of shellac varnish mixed with crocus (oxide of iron). This paint will render the acid solution used in the cells and give quite a nice appearance. To complete the battery procure two zinc cylinders 7 inches high, 1 1/2 inches diameter, and 1/4 inch thick. Also two round porous pots 3 inches diameter and 1 1/2 inches high. Also two zinc blocks and 2 blocks wide. Attach two

be pumped into the lower part to force the water into the gasoline tank above. To refill this tank with gasoline, the stopcock at A is opened, letting the air out and the weight of the water then siphons the gasoline into the tank above through the valve and stopcock B.

In Fig. 3 a carbon dioxide tank is connected to the pipe A and the pressure of the gas then forces the gasoline out through the pipe B.

In Fig. 4 the stopcock A is connected to the water main or pipe when the pressure of the water forces the gasoline out through the stopcock B. The valve C prevents the water from escaping into the gasoline tank through the stopcock B. To refill the tank, the stopcock

If the liquid in the carboy is sulphuric acid (oil of vitriol) or any other liquid that attacks rubber the two bent tubes connecting bottle to bottle may be made in one piece and if care is taken to push the ends of the tubes below the end of the corks the liquid will reach up to them and so they will not be hurt in the slightest. In fact no rubber connections may be made use of except from the suction pump to one end of the line of bottles, because of course it is more convenient to use them.

A glass filter pump is the best to use to use any fumes that may perhaps come over law or having an effect on it, as they would have on a metal one.

## MAKING YOUR OWN PERFUMERY.

BY A. A. ALDEN.

The manufacture of perfumery has always seemed a difficult process to many, and without doubt the blending of certain kinds of perfume is a matter of much scientific and skillful manipulation, but on the other hand, the most commonly used perfumes can be made at home with simple apparatus and without much expense or trouble. In many parts of the country, flowers are so abundant that one can harvest all that are needed for manufacturing at home perfumes enough for a year's use.

A perfume garden should prove as profitable as one of fruits or vegetables. We plant gardens for cut flowers and for flower seeds, but few raise flowers for perfume making. Enough perfumery is sold in this country annually to make a yearly tax of nearly ten dollars on every family. This amount is not evenly distributed, but few cities which spend enough to make it worth while, if she has the garden space to try a hand at making her perfumes at home.

One must devote time to the cultivation of certain flowers which thrive luxuriantly in the vicinity. In many parts of the country roses thrive so luxuriantly that fields can be sown with them, and an abundant crop raised. In other sections the rose is slow-growing for this purpose, but the violet takes its place. Again, it must be the jessamine, the tuberose, the orange blossom, or lavender. Whatever flower it is that thrives and possesses delicate but powerful fragrance should be chosen for the work.

Direct distillation is the most satisfactory way of making perfume. The still is a simple affair and it can be made out of articles found in the average home. Take an ordinary tin can, scour it clean and purify it of all oil odors. Stop the spout completely, and fit a cork in the top through which the oil is poured. From a hardware store get four feet of copper tubing (tin or galvanized iron pipe may also be used). The tube should be bent downward at the ends.

The tin can should be filled with a pound of flower

skins of the globes, and confine in corked bottles.

Besides distillation, we have the process of absorption, which anyone can do at home with little trouble and expense. It is slightly more complicated, but it will extract the perfume of more delicate flowers, such as the violet, with greater success. This process consists of covering two large shallow pans or soap plates with a layer of melted stear. The layer should be half an inch or more thick. When the fat has hardened, gather the violets, jessamine, or tuberose flowers, and cover the stear thickly with them. Then place one plate over the other, and force down firmly. Wrap the plates tightly in paper so that the perfume will not all be retained. In twenty-four hours the stear will have absorbed nearly all the perfume. Then quickly remove the dead petals, and replace with more fresh ones. Repeat this operation for several days or even for a week, so as to secure a strong supply of odors. When enough petals have been robbed of their odor, remove the top plate and cut the stear into small pieces, and drop them into a wide-mouthed bottle or glass jar containing alcohol. The transference should be made as quickly as possible, and with least exposure to the air. Then close the bottle or jar, and seal with paraffin to make air tight. As the stear absorbs the fragrance of the petals, so will the alcohol rob the stear of its concentrated extract. Every day the bottle should be shaken a little, and in a fortnight the alcohol should be poured off through a strainer into bottles and corked.

Besides making the liquid perfumes, one should consider sachet powders and perfumed pastes. These are very useful in many household uses. A rose water is made by steeping rose leaves in water, and pounding with a mortar until reduced to a paste. This maceration should be thorough, and can be done with an ordinary rotary mill. Now add a drop of the purest home-made attar of rose, and permit the paste to dry in an airtight receptacle. The paste will grow quite hard, and can then be cut into any shape desired. A piece placed in a drawer will scent the place for a long time. If the pieces not in use are kept airtight they will retain fragrance indefinitely, and will always be ready for instant use. Laid in linen and clothes presses, they add that subtle fragrance to the fabrics which so many like.

Sachet powders are as numerous and as varied in fragrance as colognes. One may compound them out of flower petals, spices, and perfume to suit individual preferences. The art of making sachets is very simple and inexpensive. If we add to these attars and essential oils such simple articles purchasable at any drug store, as iris root, musk, and coumarin (all for coloring only) and such spices as cloves, cinna mon, and ginger, we have all the materials that a small laboratory requires for making a dozen kinds of popular perfumes. Lavender seeds raised and cured at home make a sachet suitable for those who like this odor. Another is manufactured by mixing iris root and ground cloves with a little musk and attar of rose, the whole moistened with a little alcohol, and then rolled and kneaded into a paste, which in time grows quite stiff. A few pieces of this distributed around in the clothes press will add a delicious odor to garments. For gifts, appropriate bottles and ribbons or boxes may be purchased cheaply at the stores, or silk and damask can be obtained for concealing sachet or perfumed pastes, and pin cushions may be made and scented indefinitely by inclosing a good piece of the perfumed paste in the center.

## AN EXPERIMENT IN SOUND.

BY W. C. CARR.

Those who have had the good fortune to travel through a virgin tropical forest could hardly fail to have been impressed by the dense silence which pervades all nature between the hours of 1 and 4 P. M. This is the thermal noon of those regions, when all life, weary with the battle with the terrible heat which is assailing it, ceases to stir. No sound is heard save perhaps the slight rustling of a leaf, or the plaintive grunt of a tadpole as he answers the call of his mate, or reaches out for a new comrade.

Under these circumstances Humboldt, the great German traveler, who was camping twelve miles from the falls of the Orinoco River, was astonished to find that the Indians retired from the scene of their daily eight hours later, during the night, when the woods were rendered a perfect pandemonium by the shrieks of panther, jaguar, and monkey, the sound of falling water broke with astonishing clearness.

What is the explanation of this phenomenon? And why, for example, do the citizens of Washington hear so distinctly, at night, the heavy trains of the Pennsylvania Railroad bridge over the Chesapeake and Bay, although they listen in vain for the pipes of the morning cars? The very natural explanation that the noise of the day traffic masks the sound of the night noise is not sufficient, as the experience of Washington is. Some light is thrown upon this problem by a recent

of the experience of the writer, when he was in the city of a brief tour of duty for the purpose of seeing the famous building which houses the Smithsonian Institution, and the famous pipe, but which reached his ears with such a force as to make him wonder at the conditions which made it possible, even the observation of the experience, become so definite.

Prof. Tyndall has described this phenomenon, and attributed it to large masses of air, different in temperature and density from the surrounding air, and, as far as the human ear is concerned, through perfectly transparent to the eye, and as a result, no degree the faculty of reflecting sound waves.

Following is the description of a simple experiment which, if thoroughly understood by all the learners, will enable one to explain some of the most apparently complex phenomena in nature. Everything in its own period of vibration, that is, in the rate at which it naturally swings, or vibrates—not only a tuning fork, but a column of air, and even a horse, a tree, or a ship. Other things being equal, the longer the object the slower the swing; just as a tuning fork with long prongs swings slower, than a shorter one, than one with short prongs, which swings faster, and gives a higher note. Now take a cork giving the note C, which is due to 512 vibrations per second, and excite it by blowing on it or striking it with a hammer, and hold the cork before the mouth of a bottle, say 8 inches deep and 2 inches in diameter. Instantly you hear an increase in the intensity of the sound, because the column of air induced by such a bottle will vibrate the same number of times per second as the cork. Now hold a second similar bottle between the prongs of the fork, as in the accompanying photo-



AN EXPERIMENT IN SOUND INTERFERENCE.

graph, and the sound is practically extinguished, because the crests of the waves entering one bottle coincide with the troughs of those entering the other. Under these circumstances there is always interference, or silence. Now introduce a piece of cardboard between the mouth of the bottle and the vibrating prong, the conditions of interference are destroyed, and loudness is restored. But an ear closed is quite as effective as a piece of cardboard. Place a burning match or a hot poker between the mouth of either one of the bottles, and as the thin layer of warm air reaches the opening it acts as a curtain, reflects the sound waves, and instantly the loudness of the fork is restored. This is demonstrated a significant and wonderful fact, the power of a thin layer of air to reflect sound quite as effectively as a board. Now, what are the physical conditions obtaining during the day between the ears of the citizens of Washington and the bridge over the Potomac River? The sun is shining, the atmosphere is still, a hot stratum of air rises from a metal roof, another slightly cooler from a grass plot, another of a different temperature from a concrete street, etc. Many strata of different temperatures intervene between the ear and the bridge. As we have just observed the effect of one stratum, we naturally realize that nature would possess the power of completely extinguishing the pipes of the morning trains. At night, on the contrary, the air is homogeneous, the waves are unimpeded and strike the bridge with full force.

Bearing in mind these facts, many apparently inexplicable phenomena become as clear as the noonday sun.

The use of having tables in restaurants, the best form of ships in many other cases is properly explained. A recent article in *Scientific American* described what is called the "Potomac bridge" which is a very long, narrow, and shallow channel, and is a very good example of the phenomenon described in this article. The bridge is a very long, narrow, and shallow channel, and is a very good example of the phenomenon described in this article.



HOME-MADE PERFUME STILL.

petals gathered fresh in the early morning. Pour over these petals eight fluid ounces of alcohol. Then put the can in a sawgrass half filled with water, and place on a stove, where the water can be kept at the boiling point. A hole should be cut through the cork of the can just large enough to receive the metal tube. Place a quart jar on a table nearby, and insert in it the other end of the tubing. This jar should not be sealed, or distillation will not go on properly.

When the water boils, the alcohol in the can is heated, and this process extracts the perfume from the flower petals, and gradually causes distillation through the tube into the cold jar on the table. The alcohol thus distilled will carry with it the true attar of the flowers. Alcohol has the property of extracting and holding the scent of flowers. As fast as distillation goes on, the contents of the jar should be emptied into glass bottles and securely corked and sealed with paraffin. In blending perfumes of several flowers, do the mixing after each one has been distilled separately. Do not mix the flowers in one still.

Another method of using this still is to employ water instead of alcohol for distillation. Instead of attar, we get the essential oil of the flowers, and this rises and floats on the surface of the water in small globules, which must be skimmed off carefully, and immediately bottled and kept cool and airtight. When sufficient oil is obtained, it should be mixed with alcohol to retain the odor indefinitely. One may distill with water any number of kinds of flowers, and with the essential oil properly distilled, blended perfume can then be made. A few drops of several kinds of oil are poured into a bottle containing a certain amount of alcohol, and when shaken thoroughly one has a delicious fragrance. For instance, for instance, one can de Cologne is made by pouring into a glass bottle a pint of alcohol, and adding half a dram of home-made attar of rosemary and twenty drops each of the attar of orange peel, lemon peel, and bergamot peel. The distillation of these fruit peels is another desirable home industry. Cut up fresh orange or lemon peel and place it in water in a tin can, and seal as for use in a flower press. The essential oil of these peels will then be gradually distilled into the other recep-

### SAFETY VALVE INVERTER.

Described in *Apparatus*, and shown in a self-contained and perfectly balanced condition, the valve is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**FASTER FOR GLOVES AND OTHER ARTICLES.**—W. BROWN, St. Louis, Mo. A glove is shown in a self-contained and perfectly balanced condition, the valve is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**STAY HOLDER.**—C. G. GUILLARD, New York, N. Y. One embodiment of the invention consists of a stay holder, adapted to be secured in a position for holding a stay, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

### Mechanical Devices.

**ELECTRIC FURNACE.**—H. W. HARRIS, Philadelphia, Pa. An object here is to provide a device in which the side is left open, the top of which is left closed, and the side is left open, the top of which is left closed, and the side is left open, the top of which is left closed.

### Of Interest to Farmers.

**BUG AND WORM KILLING MACHINE.**—L. TOWNSEND, Updson, N. Y. This invention relates to mechanical means for repelling and killing bugs and worms, that infest plants and crops, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**AUTOMOBILE MOVING MACHINE.**—G. DUNN, Berkeley, Mass. This invention provides mechanical means for moving a motor vehicle, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**COMBINED HAY TRUCK AND MOWER.**—W. F. KENNEDY, Lima, Ohio. An object of the invention is to provide means whereby the hay can be loaded and turned during the mowing operation. A further object is to provide a device for cutting and clearing in its operation. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**STALE CUTTER.**—J. MICHALA, and J. A. MICHALA, Canton, Ohio. A purpose of the invention is to provide a machine that will not only cut standing stalks, but will also cut down the stalks, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**ANCHOR.**—W. M. EAST, Easton, Mass. The invention relates to the class of anchors in which a number of fisher hooks are carried on a chain, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**FIG.—W. A. BARNES, Spokane, Wash. The invention relates to a device for measuring the value of work done by a pump, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.**

**HYPERBARIC SOUNDING.**—W. A. BARNES, Spokane, Wash. The invention relates to a device for measuring the value of work done by a pump, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

present and in a natural manner, prevent sagging of sounds with those external, and shows a self-contained and perfectly balanced condition, the valve is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**DENTAL CURVED.**—J. M. HARRIS, New York, N. Y. C. An object here is to provide a portable device for the treatment of the teeth, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**PISTON RING.**—P. GUILLARD, Brownwood, Texas. The invention relates to a device for the treatment of the teeth, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**STAY.**—C. G. GUILLARD, New York, N. Y. The invention relates to a device for the treatment of the teeth, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**DOG HOLDER.**—B. HARRIS, Kennedy, N. Y. Among the principal objects which the present invention has in view are to provide a device for the treatment of the teeth, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**STUFFING RETAINER.**—A. C. BROWN, Jr., New York, N. Y. The invention relates to a device for the treatment of the teeth, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**PROTECTOR POINT.**—L. QUINN, New York, N. Y. The invention relates to a device for the treatment of the teeth, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**HEATING AND LIGHTING.**—LAMP.—W. M. HARRIS, New York, N. Y. The invention relates to a device for the treatment of the teeth, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**BARKING DEVICE.**—J. A. CORPUS, Brownwood, Texas. The invention relates to a device for the treatment of the teeth, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**MACHINES AND MECHANICAL DEVICES.**—MEANS FOR THE PRODUCTION OF A BARKING DEVICE. The invention relates to a device for the treatment of the teeth, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**AUTOMATIC PHOTOGRAPHIC PRINTING MACHINE.**—W. M. HARRIS, New York, N. Y. The invention relates to a device for the treatment of the teeth, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**DISINFECTANT.**—J. A. CORPUS, Brownwood, Texas. The invention relates to a device for the treatment of the teeth, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

and mouth in its operation, and to provide a mechanism whereby the display members are brought into position, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**BOMBALAS ALARM.**—G. T. HARRIS, New York, N. Y. The invention relates to a device for the treatment of the teeth, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**WIRE-WEAVING MACHINES.**—C. E. BARNES, Madison, Ky. The invention relates to a device for the treatment of the teeth, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**JOINTED FIGURE.**—W. M. HARRIS, New York, N. Y. The invention relates to a device for the treatment of the teeth, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**TYPE-SETTING MACHINES.**—W. M. HARRIS, New York, N. Y. The invention relates to a device for the treatment of the teeth, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

**INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINE.**—I. HARRIS, New York, N. Y. The invention relates to a device for the treatment of the teeth, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways. It is provided with a handle and a lever, and is adapted to be used in a variety of ways.

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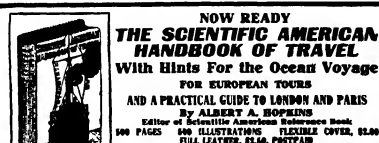
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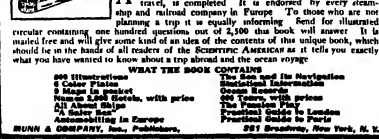
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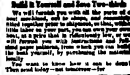
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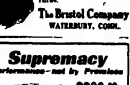
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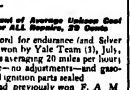
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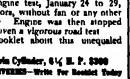
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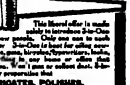
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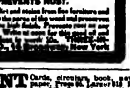
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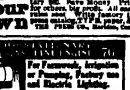
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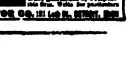
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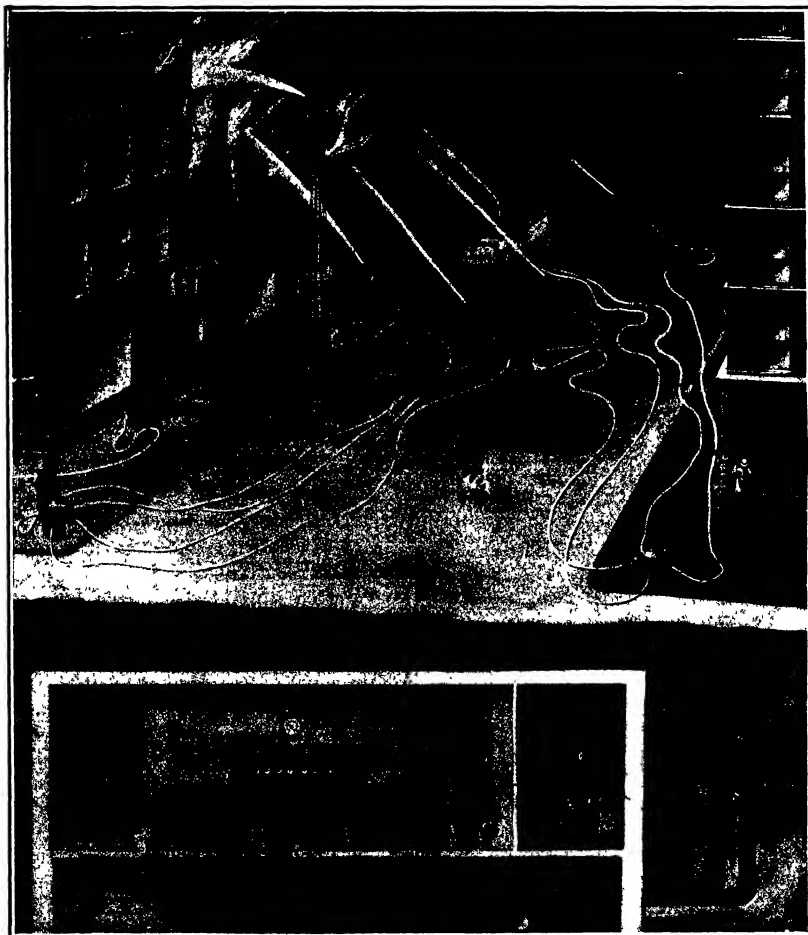
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Notice of a fire comes to the operator at telephone (see view of pumping station), who instructs engine room crew by means of marine telegraph. The engine at an lighthouse starts electric pump, which draws water from the water main or the river, and delivers it through mains to the district in which fire rages. The chief at the fire is in touch with station operator through special telephone wire.

FIRE FIGHTING WITHOUT FIRE ENGINES.—[See page 458.]



# ENGINEERING.

It is claimed by the contractors that a new record for the American flag has been accomplished on the modern sloop of the New York City Cantail squadron, where a shaft 16 feet 8 inches in diameter was sunk 175 feet in thirty-one days. The work was done in hard Hudson River water.

In a recent government test over the measured mile course of Rockland, the new battleship "Michigan" covered the fastest mile out of twenty successive runs at a speed of 18.94 knots, which exceeds by more than half a knot the fastest mile made at the battleship's acceptance standardization trial.

The first of three concrete barges which will be used in the hydraulic operation at the Panama Canal was recently launched. It draws 1200 tons complete with dredging pump, motor, and engine, three feet nine inches. One-quarter-inch No. 12 wire mesh has been used in the wall construction. The behavior of these barges will be watched with great interest.

The Interstate Commerce Commission has recently ruled that, hereafter, on several railways in the Northwest, the upper berth in Pullman sleeping cars are to cost less than the lower berth. The Commission states that, in the past seven years, the Pullman company has doubled its capitalization and dividends without the investment of any new capital.

The latest report of work on the New York State bridge canal shows that this great undertaking is being pushed through with rapidity. At the present time, 322.5 miles of the total work is under contract, additional plans have been completed for 48.2 miles, and the plans for another 36.4 miles are over seventy-five per cent completed. Having 4 miles, the plans of which are in progress.

With a view to determining whether or not the new type of shells will be defective when striking at an angle, or whether the shells will be defective, one of the new soft-nosed naval shells were fired from a 15-inch gun at the old ram "Katahdin," which was stricken from the navy list, and consigned to the scrap heap in July, 1907. The hull was completely destroyed by the latest 15-inch armor plate, in sections arranged on the vessel at various angles.

An eyer bar made by the American Vandalium Company was recently tested to destruction by the American Bridge Company. The bar, which was of a vandyum nickel steel, measured 14 inches by 2 inches by 35 feet. The results showed an elastic limit of 80,848 pounds, and a tensile strength of 99,990 pounds per square inch, with a yield point of 80,000 pounds at 15 inches, and a reduction in area at fracture of 51.5 per cent. Part of the bar was bent cold under a 14,000-ton press, and flattened upon itself without sign of fracture. Should the bar be used in the future, it is obvious, this will be an ideal material for the cylinders of long-span bridges.

Efficiency tests are conducted by officials of the Pennsylvania Railroad, who, at unusual times and places, set signals of caution or danger, display fuses, place torpedoes on the track, with a view to keeping all employees constantly on the alert for signals. During the tests for 1909, the following records were made by the men: Black signal lights, 47.284, the first 99.6 per cent showed perfect observation on the part of the employees, 45,877 tests of rules governing flag men, use of fuses, torpedoes, and other signals, 99.6 per cent perfect. Altogether, some 300,000 efficiency tests showed a practically perfect record for the employees.

Acting in accordance with the Spooner act of June 25th, 1902, which states that "the President shall cause to be constructed such safe and commodious harbors at the termini of the Panama Canal and make such provisions for their defense, as may be necessary for the safety and protection of said canals and harbors." President Taft has asked for an appropriation of \$1,000,000 for the construction of such harbors. He indorses the report of a special board of officers of the army and navy, which provides, we understand, for an adequate defense by batteries mounting the new 14-inch gun. The total cost of the completed fortifications will be about \$15,000,000.

A most commendable movement in the anthracite region of northeastern Pennsylvania is the introduction of mine schools. In former days, the anthracite-mining and the coal-mining industry was predominated in this district; but today work is done by a class of Europeans whose traditions and experience have nothing to do with mines. Several of the mining companies have established schools for the benefit of these employees, one of the first of which was that established by the Philadelphia & Reading Coal and Iron Company. Here, in attendance, are found the employees and their families employed in the mine, and the mine workers. The course, which covers a substantial part of the work in the mine, is given in the anthracite mine of work in which the

# ELECTRICITY.

In his presidential address before the American Electro-Chemical Society at Pittsburgh, Dr. Leo H. Baekeland stated that "the last hundred years, under the influence of the modern engineer and scientist, have done more for the betterment of the race than all the art, all the civilizing efforts, all the so-called literature of past ages, for which some respectable people want us to have such an exaggerated reverence."

The thirty-third convention of the National Electric Light Association, which met at St. Louis last week, reported a very prosperous year, in which 8,500 members were added, bringing the total membership up to 5,370. The association began in 1885, with a membership of only 71. There are 350 operating companies represented in the association, and these constitute 90 per cent of the capitalization of the electric light industry in this country.

A new form of mercury-rod interrupter has been developed, with the object of producing a sharper break. It consists in covering the mercury with a quenching liquid. As the rod is withdrawn from the mercury, a bubble of vapor from the quenching liquid forms on the end of the rod and tends to press the mercury level suddenly downward at the break, thus effecting a more perfect current interruption, even though the rod may rise comparatively slowly from the mercury.

The New York Legislature has passed the bill which places telegraph and telephone companies of the State under the supervision of the Public Service Commission for the second district. The bill empowers the commission to investigate and regulate the rates and service. The companies are required to file the annual reports, and the Commission may veto any privileges under the franchise of the companies which have not as yet been exercised. Reduced rates, penalties for the transmission of messages are prohibited.

A novel ventilating system has recently been developed, which consists of a small electric fan connected to the window sill in such manner that it may be operated either to draw in air from the outside, or to exhaust the air from a room. It is suggested that the value of this will be appreciated in a kitchen on freezing day, or when any baking is being done, as it prevents the heat from escaping through the window house, besides making the kitchen itself more comfortable to work in.

In order to determine the heat generated by continuous electric discharges in the thermodynamic section on instruction are to be imbedded in the concrete walls of the Gatun locks of the Panama Canal. Each thermometer consists of an iron cup in which is a resistance coil of wire, in a pair of lead tubes, surrounded by copper wire to an indicating instrument and a small storage battery. Variations in the temperature of the coil produce variations in the electrical resistance, and this is indicated on the instrument, which is calibrated to show degrees of temperature. The instrument keeps a continuous record, which should prove of considerable scientific interest and importance.

It is a difficult matter to measure very high voltages of electrostatic or Wimshurst machines, owing to the glow discharge which is apt to occur above 40,000 volts. A new method has been adopted by Prof. C. P. Guy and Mr. A. Tucheranvski, which was recently submitted to the French Academy of Sciences. This consists in enclosing the spark gap and the electrometer in a substantial box, in which compressed gas is introduced. According to the Paschen law, the dielectric potential is approximately proportional to the gas pressure. Thus, with a given potential difference, the electrodes of the spark gap can be approached to each other in proportion to the increase of gas pressure, and by the use of this method the effects are reinforced, insuring more accurate readings. This method has been employed in measuring the tension of a Wimshurst machine, which showed a voltage of 50,000 with a pressure of from 4 to 5 atmospheres in the enclosing box.

Last November there was a series of heavy snow storms in Germany, which did considerable damage to overhead power lines and telegraph lines. As a result of careful investigation was made of the causes of putting such lines underground, and it was found that by using the Pupin system, underground cables could be used to good advantage on lines of from 100 miles in length with wires not more than three millimeters (.0118 inch) in diameter. The advantages of the underground system were found to be as follows: That there would be no interruptions due to external causes, that there would be no danger of cross talk, that the efficiency of the line would always be constant, that there would be no interruptions or expense for repairs, due to external causes, and that the wires would be protected from the weather, which would permit of further expansion to meet future demands. It was also shown that telegraph and telephone lines could be laid in the same cables without danger of mutual interference.

# SCIENCE.

Mr. Charles H. Peck, botanist of the State of New York, in his annual report contains a list of new species of edible mushrooms from New York amounts to 300. Five new kinds of edible mushrooms were discovered in the last year.

Dr. Charles Forbush, of the Department of Physics in Columbia University, has installed in Harvard College the first permanent apparatus for the installation of the Foucault experiment, to show the motion of the earth. Dr. Forbush set up a temporary apparatus for the experiment in St. Paul's Chapel of Columbia University some two years ago, which was described in these columns.

Dr. William Phillips Blake, a member of the first class ever graduated from the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale, died recently at Berkeley, California, shortly after he had received the degree of LL.D. from the University of California. Prof. Blake was 84 years old. When he graduated from Yale in 1855, he became the geologist and mineralogist for the United States Pacific Railroad expedition. His numerous activities included the editing of the Mining Magazine, geological work for the Japanese government, the exploration of a section of Alaska, the teaching of mineralogy and geology in the College of California, a geological examination of Santo Domingo, and the teaching of geology in the University of Arizona.

The satisfactory explanation of the absorption spectra of glass was a very difficult problem. It required the thermopile, a spectrometer with glass or quartz lenses and prisms, and the exact determination of the wave length of the limit of transparency requires the use of a very sharp sharp edge of a camera with an excellent lens, and a source of light the spectrum of which contains many sharply-defined lines and extends far into the ultra violet. The spectra bilinear employed for the purpose of determining the spectrum of an alloy of radium, silver, and lead, the spectrum of mercury, obtained by means of the vacuum tube or the electric arc, the spectrum of the carbon arc, and even the spectrum of the sun, which contains (mercury, lead, lithium, silver, and cadmium), contain too few lines to give satisfactory results. Zickendahl has recently employed the arc spectrum of iron, which contains many lines, and the spectrum of a number of times of accurately known wave length, appears especially well adapted for the study of absorption in glass. A Zeiss spectrometer with quartz lenses and prisms was used for the purpose. The spectrum of iron in tabular form, are too complex to be briefly described.

Prof. Haber claims to have solved the problem of the direct synthesis of ammonia from its elements nitrogen and hydrogen. The process has been purchased by the well-known German establishment, the Badische Anilin and Soda-Fabrik. If the process is as practical and economical as its inventor claims, its introduction will quickly cause a revolution in the partially new but almost impracticable branch of industry, the manufacture of artificial nitrogen in several countries possessed of abundant water power, large nitrate factories in which oxygen and nitrogen are combined directly by means of the electric arc, are in operation. Prof. Haber gives a few details concerning his process, but states that the combination of hydrogen and nitrogen is effected at a temperature of about 1,000 deg. F. and a pressure of 500 atmospheres. In a recent lecture he exhibited an experimental apparatus which produced three ounces of liquid ammonia per hour. The presence of a catalyst is required in the reaction, but the catalyst is not used. For this purpose, Prof. Haber employs platinum, but the rarity of this element appears incompatible with its employment on a commercial scale.

The advertisement is sold to result in a profit of one hundred million dollars per year. Bread, which may be called the national food of France, has long been adulterated largely with talc, a white silicate which is very palatable, but is exceedingly irritating to the gastro-intestinal mucous membrane because of the sharp crystal fragments which it contains. Flour is mixed with stannous oxide, which is used to increase the whiteness of the flour, and with stannous oxide to keep the bread fresh with copper sulphate and ammonium carbonate, to diminish the quantity of yeast required and to improve the appearance of the bread. The flour is treated with alcohol, costing one-eighth the price of pure alcohol, is used for the manufacture of the liqueurs and spirituous, which are so largely consumed in France. Although denatured by the addition of methyl alcohol, it is not completely denatured, and is therefore perceptible. The mixture is then brought to the desired alcoholic strength by the addition of strong spirits, flavored to suit the taste of the consumer and sharpened by the addition of a pint of nitric acid to each barrel.

# A COMMERCIAL ROTARY ENGINE

## PRACTICAL SOLUTION OF AN AGE-LONG PROBLEM

Nowhere in this issue we have discussed editorially the problem of the rotary engine and set down the mechanical difficulties which must be overcome before a successful engine of this type can be produced. Reference was made to the fact that a recent rotary engine has undergone a successful laboratory test at the Stevens Institute and a successful commercial test of six months duration at the plant of a leading contractor in this city. This engine, which was designed and built by Mr. Gerardus P. Herriek, of 74 Broadway, this city, forms the subject of the accompanying illustrations. The principal distinguishing features—those which contribute more than any others to its success—are, first, the fact that reciprocating movements are entirely eliminated, all of the movements being rotary; and secondly, that the main shaft of the engine runs upon a film of steam, whereby the destructive thrust, transverse to the axis, is completely counterbalanced.

**Mechanism of the Engine.**—The engine consists of two rotors or drums of equal diameter, placed one above the other, and running with the barest clearance between their peripheries. By means of external gears, they are caused to rotate in opposite directions at the same speed. The upper drum rotates within a closed cylindrical casing, between the walls of which and itself there is a bare micrometer clearance. The lower, or what we might call the power drum, rotates within a casing of larger diameter than itself, and it is provided with a rectangular piston which fills the annular space between the external periphery of the drum and the internal periphery of the casing. This drum and its attached piston also rotate within their casing with only a micrometer clearance between the adjacent surfaces. The peripheries of the upper and lower rotors intersect each other sufficiently to allow the upper drum to project within the lower casing until it rotates with only the slightest clearance between itself and the power drum.

**Valve Movement.**—Bunk in the upper drum is a transverse, semicircular recess, which serves at once as a pocket to admit the piston of the lower drum as the two drums roll together, and also as an admission valve for the live steam, the proper registering of the piston with this pocket being assured by the fact that the two drums are geared together. Steam is admitted on one side of the engine and exhausted on the other. The successive admission, expansion, and exhaustion of the steam are simple and easy to understand. As the piston (which, viewed from the side, of the engine above in our drawing, moves opposite to the hands of the clock) closes the pocket in the upper drum the latter moves forward until its leading edge clears the lower edge of the steam inlet, when live steam is admitted to the annular space back of the piston and continues to flow therein until the latter edge of the pocket has swung round clear of the steam cylinder. This point of cut-off is the position chosen for the accompanying illustration. During the rest of the stroke, the steam works expansively, until the latter face of the piston clears the forward edge of the exhaust ports, which are shown in dotted lines at the end of the circular path swept through by the piston.

### BY A COUNTERBALANCE

The most original and valuable feature of this engine is the ingenious method by which the heavy load on the main shaft, due to the radial steam pressure in the cylinder, is exactly counterbalanced by a steam pressure acting in the opposite direction, the rotor being balanced in its own steam. This is accomplished by means of what are known as balancing plugs, which are inserted in steam balancing chambers. There are two of these plugs, one on each side of the engine. They are made of sufficient length and diameter to provide an area which, at any part of the stroke, is exactly equal to the area of the curved face of the drum which is under the pressure of the live steam. For a little over half their periphery, and on the side immediately opposed to that portion of

the annular cylinder space upon which the heaviest steam pressure is developed, the balance plugs are provided with a series of recessed steam pockets, and steam is admitted to these pockets successively by a series of holes drilled through the drum. Consequently



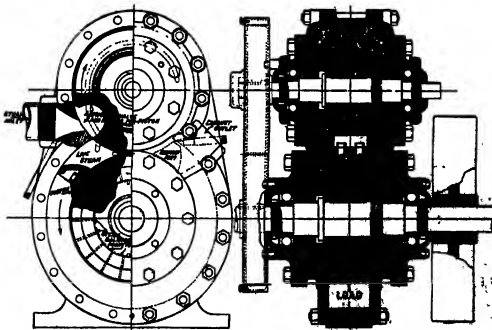
The piston is shown at cut-off. It must leave back of piston to admit steam to balancing chambers.

Rotary engine with side plates removed



By this device the rotor rides on a film of steam and the load is taken off the main bearings.

The balancing plug.



This view shows the valve mechanism at point of cut-off.

Irregular sectional view, showing the piston within the valve pocket.

### A PRACTICAL COMMERCIAL ROTARY ENGINE

ly, the thrust of the steam toward the shaft of the rotor is, for all positions, constantly balanced by an equal thrust of the steam away from the shaft. Perfect balance is secured, the rotor practically running upon a fine film of live steam. The mechanical details of the ingenious arrangement are such that not only are there no friction and destructive, uneven wear at the main

journals prevented, but it is possible to mount the rotor on easily adjusted ball-bearings, whose duty is simply to keep the rotor in true axial alignment.

**Source of Success.**—The success of the Herriek engine, which has contributed largely to making this rotary engine practical, is the abolition of packing devices between the adjacent moving surfaces. Knowing the impossibility of keeping the usual packing device steam-tight, Mr. Herriek decided to abolish them and reduce leakage by machining the parts so minutely that they could be adapted to run with the smallest micrometer clearances. That this has been accomplished successfully is proved by the fact that in the tests at Stevens Institute, this engine developed 100 brake horse-power on a steam consumption of 300 pounds per brake horse-power per hour; while other engines favorably with the steam consumption of the average reciprocating engine of similar capacity. It will be realized that by getting rid of packing devices and introducing a system of steam balancing, Mr. Herriek has not only prolonged the life of the rotary engine, but he has greatly increased its output by getting rid of that accumulated friction which, in earlier forms of the rotary, was sufficient to cut down the economy to a point which rendered them commercially unserviceable.

**LABORATORY TESTS.**—In his report of the laboratory tests at Stevens Institute, Prof. Pryor states that he obtained the following results: With a steam pressure of 145 pounds and 1,000 revolutions per minute, 20.48 brake horse-power was obtained with saturated steam, on a consumption of 30.1 pounds of water per brake horse-power per hour. With a steam pressure of 185.5 pounds and 55 deg. of superheat, the engine at 1,000 revolutions per minute developed 30.46 brake horse-power on a consumption of 44.4 pounds of water per hour. In commenting upon these tests, Prof. Pryor says of the engine "Its steadiness of operation, its lack of vibration, and its output per cubic foot of space occupied, should be particularly commended."

**COMMERCIAL TEST.**—To test its commercial value over a long period of time, the engine was coupled to a dynamo at the Dugan Contracting Company's plant in this city, and from August 14th to the 25th, 1905, it served to produce the current for lighting the plant day and night. It was run for 1,685 hours, or the equivalent of more than six full working months. At the end of this time, it was again tested at the Stevens Institute; when, under similar conditions of revolution and steam pressure to those which obtained at the first test, the steam consumption was found to be 33.6 pounds, the slight increase being attributed by Prof. Pryor to the fact that new ball bearings had been put in without sufficiently careful adjustment, and some rubbing of adjacent surfaces had occurred.

**FORCES FAIR TO THE ROTARY.**—Apart from the field of usefulness open for the rotary because of its compactness, simplicity, perfect balance, and moderate steam consumption, there is a far wider and more important field presented in connection with the steam turbine. We have frequently in this issue drawn attention to the fact that the steam turbine is most efficient in the lower stages of the expansion of the steam, and that in the higher ranges, because of leakage over the ends of the blades, it is not so economical; and that at low speeds it is decidedly uneconomical. Furthermore, the turbine cannot economically handle the high-pressure steam of superheated steam, and consequently it is shied out from all lines, with the exception of the use of high-pressure and high-speed steam, where the turbine is the only engine that can be used.

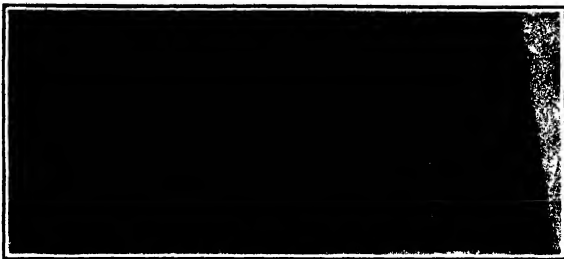
**Modern Test.**—The rotary engine is the only engine of its kind that has been tested and compared with the turbine. In the tests at Stevens Institute, the rotary engine was found to be more economical than the turbine in the lower ranges of expansion, and in the higher ranges, because of leakage over the ends of the blades, it is not so economical; and that at low speeds it is decidedly uneconomical. Furthermore, the turbine cannot economically handle the high-pressure steam of superheated steam, and consequently it is shied out from all lines, with the exception of the use of high-pressure and high-speed steam, where the turbine is the only engine that can be used.

## THE COSTLIEST EAR OF CORN IN THE WORLD

BY FRANK C. PERKINS

In the accompanying illustration we present ten champion ears of corn, which were sold at the rate of \$1.65 per bushel, at \$2.50 for the ten ears, one of the highest prices, if not the highest price, paid for the number of ears of corn. The champion single ear of corn was sold at the Omaha National Corn show for \$85, or at the rate of \$8,500 per bushel, which is said to be the highest price ever paid for a single ear of corn.

The champion ten ears of corn shown in the illustration average 10½ inches in length and 7½ in circumference, each ear carrying 30 rows of kernels, the depth of the kernels being ¾ of an inch, and the average



THE COSTLIEST EAR OF CORN IN THE WORLD

weight of each ear was 20 ounces. Prize agricultural products such as these may not be adapted to all localities, for which reason one must not be misled by the awarding of a prize. In some localities the prize

winning purposes. Lastly it must be considered that from a large field of corn some large specimens may be selected. This does not prove that the selected specimens are the best, but merely the largest.

## A GIANT RUHMKORFF COIL

BY JACQUES BOYER

The first induction coil was made by Mason and Bréguet in 1845, but it was not until 1861 that Ruhmkorff gave the instrument its definite form, which has not sensibly varied since that time, although it has been improved and modified for various applications. Ruhmkorff increased the number of turns of wire of the secondary circuit, for which he employed a very fine and very long wire. Perfect insulation was obtained by saturating the coil with gun lac and the intensity of the magnetic force was increased by inserting a core of parallel iron wires inside the concentric coils. These wires are magnetized by the primary current and the magnetic flux produces currents in the secondary circuit.

The principal improvements which have been made in Ruhmkorff's original coil are the following. In the first place, Wilson increased the power of the instrument by connecting the ends of the primary coil with the electrodes of a condenser, composed of plates of tinfoil separated by silk and placed in the line of the instrument. The wire between the plates is connected to the primary circuit.

The second improvement consists in the use of a condenser, which is connected to the primary circuit. This device is used to store up the electrical energy and to discharge it in a series of sparks, which are produced by the condenser.

the other. This method avoids the production, between two adjacent turns of wire, of a difference of potential sufficiently great to pierce the intervening insulation.

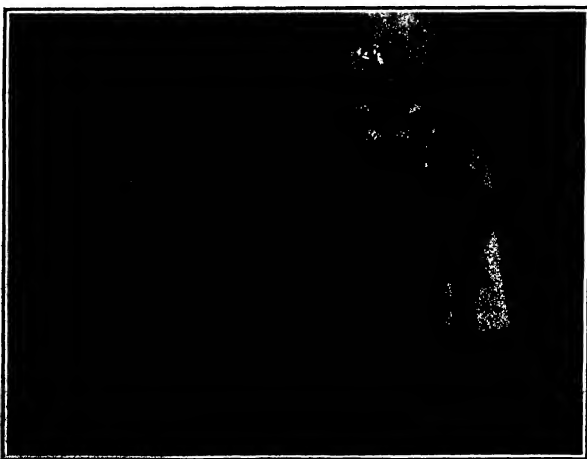
The interrupter, by which the primary circuit is broken at very short intervals, was improved by D'Arsonval, by giving it the form of a vibrating strip of metal, fixed at both ends and bearing at its middle point a

induction coils are usually provided with Foucault's mercury interrupter, operated by a separate battery of one or two cells.

One of the largest induction coils ever made was constructed long ago in England for Spittleswoode, by the instrument maker Apple. Its length was 48 inches, its external diameter, 18½ inches, its weight 1,475 pounds, and the weight of its core of soft iron, 67 pounds. The primary circuit consisted of 5,100 feet of wire of a diameter of 1/10 inch. The length of the secondary circuit was 250 miles. It consisted of 341,850 turns of wire. This apparatus, operated by 30 Grove cells, produced a spark 40 inches long.

A still larger coil was recently constructed in Paris by Carpentier. The second circuit of this instrument is composed of 974 miles of copper wire of a diameter of 1/125 inch. The soft iron core has a length of 80 inches and a sectional area of 3.2 square inches. The primary coil contains 793 turns of copper ribbon, about ¼ inch broad and 1/88 inch thick arranged in six layers. The coil is surrounded by a sheath of asbestos tube more than ¼ inch thick. This giant induction coil, operated by a current of 110 volts and 30 amperes, produces a spark about 50 inches in length.

The Canadian Government have appropriated \$50,000 for experiments in electrical smelting, which are to be conducted under the supervision of Dr. Eugene Hamel, superintendent of mines for the Government of Ottawa.



A GIANT RUHMKORFF COIL.

plate of soft iron. The primary current flows through this plate and a metal point in contact with it. This contact is broken by the attraction which the core of the instrument, when magnetized by the passage of the primary current, exerts upon the iron plate. But the attraction ceases as soon as the circuit is broken, and the point is then immediately re-established by the pressure of the vibrating strip of metal. In this way a series of sparks is produced. Very large

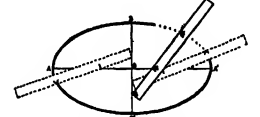


# Correspondence.

## A SIMPLE METHOD OF CONSTRUCTING AN ELLIPSE.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:—  
In your issues of July 14th and August 28th for the year 1906, two methods are suggested for drawing an ellipse with the aid of a compass. But the compass has never produced a true ellipse, and these methods are merely close approximations. Also, in the last-mentioned issue, there is a method for constructing an ellipse by means of a network of tangents. This method also was proposed by Mr. W. W. Washburn in the number for July 1st, 1906, and he in turn offers a solution by a network of tangents which I believe gives a perfect ellipse, although the method is somewhat cumbersome for ordinary use.

There is, however, a simple way of constructing an ellipse of any desired dimensions solely with the aid



## A SIMPLE METHOD OF CONSTRUCTING AN ELLIPSE.

of straight-edge and pencil. No originality belongs to my method, but it is readily proved to accord with correct mathematical principles.

On a straight-edge or ruler mark off a distance  $QF$ , equal to half the desired major axis, also, from point  $P$ , a distance  $PM$ , equal to half the desired minor axis. Referring now to the drawing, we construct perpendiculars  $AA'$  and  $BB'$ , and lay the ruler down so that the points  $Q$  and  $M$  fall exactly upon these perpendiculars. The point  $P$  will then fall somewhere on the curve of the proposed ellipse. By shifting the ruler about, in such a way that  $Q$  and  $M$  always fall on lines  $AA'$  and  $BB'$ , respectively, the mark on the ruler at  $P$  will give the position of any number of points, which afterward may readily be joined by a continuous line.

STEWART M. WATSON.  
Washington and Jefferson College, Washington, Pa.

## Astronomical Photography.

The plan of photographing the entire heavens originated with Monnier in 1857. The death of this eminent man of science was due to the adverse factors which have conspired to delay the work, which now, however, promises to draw to a triumphant conclusion.

The importance of the universal photographic work to the astronomer of the future cannot be overestimated. It is now generally acknowledged that the stars are in motion with respect to one another, and our entire solar system is in motion through space, so that one day the constellations will be seen from a sensibly different point of view. Changes will come to pass in the apparent arrangement of the star groups, and in the course of years they will develop, so that something may ultimately be discovered of the real structure and laws of the distant bodies of the universe. It may be that the chart now being prepared will enable the astronomer of some remote future to learn as much of the great universe of stars as we know of our comparatively minute solar system revolving within it.

Though photography has been demonstrated in late years to be the only method of revealing the structure of those fascinating formations, the nebulae, at all adequately, the star chart on a large scale, though it is more prone to lay observation, possesses an incalculable value of itself. The wonderful series of the photographic chart may lead, with the aid of a correspondingly accurate system of measurement, to the discovery of entirely new laws of the universe which directly affect our own place in the grand scheme of the law and evaluated the magnitude of an oscillation in the position of the axis of the earth's figure, which had for years puzzled his astronomical colleagues, not as a result of the special series of observations made for the purpose, but upon the examination of measures made for diverse ends at numerous observatories throughout the whole of the last century. And so it has always been, and will continue to be, when any great advance has been made in a knowledge of the laws which govern the universe. So it will have to be in the solution of the problems which confront astronomical science in the future. The photographic chart, by making these advances more rapid and more certain than is possible by the old "visual" method, has practically revolutionized this branch of astronomy, and has opened up the possibility of

chart over the older method of observation is quite simply explained. The image of a star in the telescope is very rarely absolutely stationary, for the light, prior to its reaching the instrument, has to pass through the variable sea of our own atmosphere, constantly disturbed, in practically all positions, by solid and liquid currents. These disturbances are familiar to the sort of effect which is thus produced. On a blaring hot day, when currents of air are rising from the heated ground, the target seems to dance before the eye, and the currents of air are familiar to the sort of effect which is thus produced. On a blaring hot day, when currents of air are rising from the heated ground, the target seems to dance before the eye, and the currents of air are familiar to the sort of effect which is thus produced. On a blaring hot day, when currents of air are rising from the heated ground, the target seems to dance before the eye, and the currents of air are familiar to the sort of effect which is thus produced.

For motion is very rapid, several times a second does the star make a small jump from its mean position and return to it, and on an average, it jumps every way with equal frequency. The consequence of this is that the photographic plate, which records every jump, produces in the end an image which is certainly larger than it ought to be, but which is, as a rule, enlarged equally in every direction. The center remains still when the center of the image belongs. And when the plate is put under the microscope of the measuring machine—a device capable of accurately determining a fifty thousandth of an inch—the enlargement which is caused by the measuring screw set upon the photographed image, the enlargement of the latter is more than compensated for by any advantage which accrues from a steady image.

But the superiority of the astronomical photograph over visual observation is not confined to the star chart. Numerous articles in popular periodicals have acquainted the general reader with the nature of the nebulae as revealed by the photographic plate. The cumulative effect of light upon the latter renders it possible to obtain exquisite delineations of faintly glowing objects by means of long exposures of time. Vast new regions of space are thus being ascertained, and still vaster regions await further exploration. Prof. B. Ray Lankester, in an address before the British Association, stated that "the invention of the dry plate, which has made it possible to apply photography to astronomical work is the chief cause of the great expansion of astronomy since 1851." To quote Prof. Lankester further: "It was the dry plate which made long exposures possible, and thus enabled astronomers to obtain regular records of faintly luminous objects, such as nebulae and star spectra. Roughly speaking, those visible to the naked eye may be stated as 4,000; this is raised by the use of the best telescope to 100,000,000. But the number which can be photographed is indefinite, and depends on length of exposure. 1,000,000,000,000 can certainly be so recorded by the photographic method, and the new variable stars and other interesting objects have been discovered. New planets have been detected by the method. Up to 1851, nearly 1,000 stars were known; now we have found, namely, 50,000, and the 50,000, discovered on May 19th. Now a score, at least, are discovered every year."

The appearance of Halley's comet this year suggests the fact that some of the most extraordinary revolutions of photography in astronomy have been in the case of these strange members of the solar system. The vast time and tenacity of comets render them very valuable for astronomical study. The photographic plate has shown that the comets utterly transform themselves in a few hours' time. These transformations are sometimes evidently due to gravitational attraction, and sometimes to other causes. The photograph of Halley's comet, which was taken on May 19th, shows the comet in a position which was not only distorted but sometimes breaks the tail. This was the case with one of the comets of 1851, when photographs on successive nights above the comet showed it in a position which was not only distorted but sometimes breaks the tail. This was the case with one of the comets of 1851, when photographs on successive nights above the comet showed it in a position which was not only distorted but sometimes breaks the tail.

According to Prof. G. W. Ritchey, of the Yerkes Observatory, it is now possible, with the aid of improved photographic apparatus, to construct a photographic re-

fecting telescope with as much precision and refinement as have been expended upon the great refracting telescopes. Prof. Ritchey has already obtained results from his two-foot photographic reflector, and his photographs thus obtained of the nebulae have a wider appeal than to the scientific mind alone. To many a person untrained in astronomy, the beautiful photograph of the great spiral nebula in the constellation of Andromeda, obtained with the Yerkes two-foot reflector, would probably appear at once as that of a most interesting and beautiful object. The great appeal in the making. About the same proportion of the size of the planets in our own system is to be observed in the great central spherical condensation of the whirling mass and the smaller condensation at the periphery. Some of these smaller condensation, at various distances from the central semi-formal orb, have assumed an almost perfectly spherical shape. Others, again, are flattened, though vastly denser than the nebulous matter extending in a circular or elliptical form, through out the entire spiral system. It may be observed that the spiral character of this nebula was never even suspected until it was photographed in 1885 by Ritchey with a reflecting telescope. Yet the result then obtained was crude indeed when compared with what was obtained by the instrument at the Yerkes Observatory. The great appeal in the making. About the same proportion of the size of the planets in our own system is to be observed in the great central spherical condensation of the whirling mass and the smaller condensation at the periphery. Some of these smaller condensation, at various distances from the central semi-formal orb, have assumed an almost perfectly spherical shape. Others, again, are flattened, though vastly denser than the nebulous matter extending in a circular or elliptical form, through out the entire spiral system. It may be observed that the spiral character of this nebula was never even suspected until it was photographed in 1885 by Ritchey with a reflecting telescope. Yet the result then obtained was crude indeed when compared with what was obtained by the instrument at the Yerkes Observatory.

Judging from the results obtained with the two-foot instrument Prof. Ritchey estimates that an eight-foot reflector, if used in a climate where there are suitable atmospheric conditions, would photograph stars which are fifty times fainter than the faintest stars which can be seen with the largest modern refractors. "This means," says Prof. Ritchey, "that such a reflector would give pictures of stars seven times farther into space than can now be done with the greatest visual telescopes, and therefore that such an instrument would reveal to us a universe seven times more vast than the one now known. The hundred-fold greater than the universe which is revealed by the most powerful modern refractors. I know of no opportunity which has ever been presented to the entire history of astronomical science, since which new worlds in the construction of a large modern reflector and its use in astronomical photography."

It is estimated that the cost of such an instrument as Prof. Ritchey advocates—that is, one of eight-foot aperture, and embodying the latest developments in optics and mechanics—would be about one-third that of building a battleship of the "Dreadnought" type.

## The Current Supplement.

One of the most important articles in the current Supplement, No. 1796, is that by George Noyman, in which the compulsory working of German patents is discussed, a matter of great importance to American manufacturers. The admission of inventors is a most important factor in designing devices, and must be considered at every step in the preparation of a general design. An article on this subject appears in the current Supplement. Ross's excellent description of a specific puppet show, and how it can be made and used, is continued. When shipbuilders commenced turning out iron and steel vessels, navigators found themselves confronted with the problem of overcoming the resistance of the water. The compass needle, which was used to point toward the magnetic north. How the problem is solved is told by William G. Ward in a paper entitled "Compass and the Magnetic North." The Canadian pulp making in the Algoma district, Ontario, Irish linen and some features of their production are discussed by Sir William Crawford.

Three kinds of bench marks were used by the United States Geological Survey in the spirit leveling in Ohio from 1888 to 1906, inclusive, according to a bulletin by Messrs. H. S. Gannett and D. H. Smith. The first form was generally used in the vertical walls of public buildings, bridge abutments or other substantial masonry structures, being a circular stone or aluminum tablet, 1/2 inch in diameter and 1/2 inch thick, appropriately lettered, and having a 3/4 inch stem cemented into a drilled hole. The second form was employed where masonry or rock formations were not available, and consisted of a hollow wrought iron post, 4 feet long and 3/4 inches in outer diameter, split at the bottom and expanded to 1/2 inch so as to resist pulling from the ground. Three points were set 3 feet from the ground, the first being coated with asphalt and a bronze tablet similar to the one already described was then riveted to the top. The third form was little used and is now altogether discontinued. It consisted of a block of copper, 1 inch in diameter and 4 inches long.



# HOW TO ESCAPE FROM A SUNKEN SUBMARINE

## METHODS APPROVED AND DISAPPROVED

In a diving manual recently published by Bloch, Gorman & Company, Limited, submarine engineers of London, we find some excellent suggestions on the subject of saving the crews of submarine boats.

The problem of saving the lives of a crew of a submarine vessel is by no means easy of solution. The equipment and apparatus which is invaluable on shore is quite useless under water. It would be quite easy to construct a submarine boat, the crew of which would be safe under practically every conceivable set of circumstances, but such a vessel would be so hampered by her safety devices as to have little or no military efficiency. In the opinion of Messrs. Bloch & Gorman it is essential that the salvage of the vessel and of the crew must be looked upon as entirely separate. Inevitable delays in the arrival of the salvage vessel and in getting purchases on conditions of tide, weather, air, render it almost certain that a submarine cannot be raised in time to save life.

It is taken for granted that an accident which will endanger the lives of the crew will result in the loss of the vessel in large quantities. A minor accident to the machinery would result only in an involuntary rush to the surface, owing to the reserve buoyancy of the boat, and any ordinary small leakage can be readily dealt with by the machinery at command.

When, however, there is a collision, or when, by some other mischance, a hole is made in the hull, the water enters freely, and the effect will be the descent of the vessel to the bottom. This may not be very fast, but, assuming that the water is entering more rapidly than it can be expelled, the vessel will undoubtedly sink and continue to fill until she is either full, or, if not holed in the top, until the air in her is compressed to a pressure equal to that of the water at the depth in which she has foundered. As soon as the salt water comes into contact with the battery or with the terminals of the dynamo, if this be still working, chlorine is evolved, and the air remaining inside is vitiated.

If anything is done, it must be done quickly. Accordingly, the following steps must be taken:

(a) To render the crew independent of poisonous gases.

(b) To preserve the crew from drowning in the boat, and

(c) To provide means of escape from the boat, and ascent to the surface. The devices to bring these about at present known are:

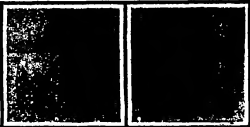
(1) Air locks for escape.

(2) Detachable chambers or life boats.

(3) Self-contained dress for escape.

Air locks alone are of little use except in shallow water, but combined with (2) or (3) are essential in all methods of escape. The air lock may be a portion of the boat provided for the special purpose, or the general cavity of the boat may be used in which case the pressure inside the vessel can be made equal to that of the water outside by simply allowing the water to enter for it is manifestly impossible to open an aperture until the pressure at both sides of it are equal. The great objection to all forms of detachable chambers or life boats is their size, weight, and resistance. If made large enough to contain all the crew of a modern submarine, and as such a chamber would have to be carried as a superstructure, it would be in the likeliest position to be injured

in case of collision. Moreover, what is further against any device of this kind is that the crew are expected in a moment of considerable excitement to undertake an entirely novel operation which there is no means



3. The diagram on the left shows a longitudinal section of a submarine, showing an air line in use, three pipes under the water, and a hose leading from the conning tower to the surface. The diagram on the right shows a transverse section of a submarine, showing a person in a small compartment in the air line, wearing a diving helmet, and a man operating the conning tower.

### VARIOUS METHODS OF RESCUE.

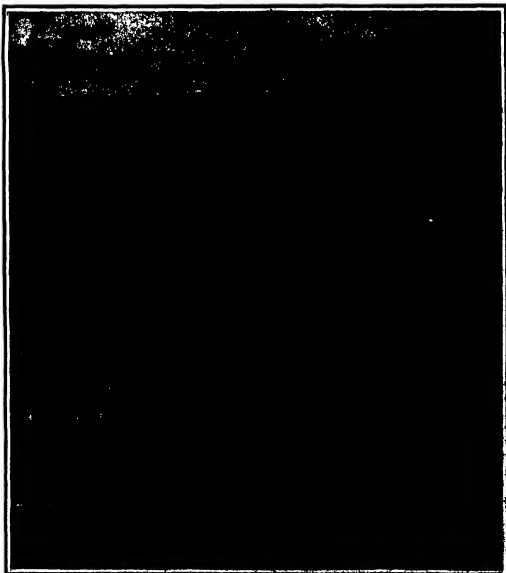
of trying previously. Experience has shown that even plain drop safety weights fall at the critical moment.

A life-saving device to be efficient must be able to fulfill promptly the three conditions, a, b, and c, previously referred to, and in order to meet them a special form of diving helmet has been designed by Messrs. Bloch & Gorman which is quite self-contained and not dependent on any feature which is liable to get out of order. The helmet, which is large enough to allow the head free movement, is sloped away to fit the shoulders, and is connected to a short jacket of strong waterproof material. In front of the jacket, inside, is a pocket containing a combined air purifier and oxygen generator, consisting of two small chambers

formed in one case. These chambers are charged with a patented substance which, when in contact with the water vapor of the breath, gives off pure oxygen gas and forms a caustic alkali. The alkali in its turn takes up the carbonic acid gas of the respiration and forms an alkaline carbonate. In this way, so to speak, one type of smoke helmet, the same air, purified and re-oxygenated, is used over and over again. The total weight of the whole outfit is 16 pounds. Packed up for storage, it occupies a space of 15 inches by 10 inches by 15 inches. The dress can be put on without assistance in 30 seconds. When on it prevents a man from drowning, and in proof of this it may be said that it is now in everyday use under water with perfect success. Moreover, it acts as a life buoy, and actually raises its wearer to the surface. An additional device is also fitted to enable the wearer when he reaches the surface to inflate a flexible chamber which surrounds the jacket and thus to form a life belt. This provision is necessary, for the length of time the purifier will remain in action is limited, and when its efficiency is impaired the door in the helmet must be opened, which operation can be performed by the wearer, in order to admit fresh air. When this is done the helmet converts to be buoyant. Other methods, such as the fitting of cork belts or chambers already filled with air, have been tried and abandoned, being found to be impracticable, owing to the necessity of embarking heavy weights in the wearer down, and also by reason of the dangerous velocity with which he would rise to the surface on the removal of the weights.

At Portsmouth the British Admiralty have in use a huge water tank, at the bottom of which is erected a skeleton submarine boat, serving the purpose of permitting the men to exercise in the helmet described. The men having first been trained in the use of the helmet, they are quickly able to practice getting into and out of the air lock. They are afterward lowered in the air lock to the bottom of the tank, where they enter the submarine, and find their way to a ladder leading to the conning tower, the hatch of which they open. They then either float to the surface or return to the starting point, the operations being repeated until the officer in charge considers the men proficient. These arrangements have been designed to represent as nearly as possible the same conditions as would obtain in a submarine boat that had been flooded.

If the hole in the submarine be at the top, the water will gradually displace the whole of the air. If, however, the hole is lower than the top, then the water will only enter until the air, which cannot escape, has been compressed until the pressure is equal to that of the water outside. In the latter case there is no difficulty in getting at the position of the helmet dress, since there is air inside the hull. In the former case, however, unless special provision were made, this would not be so, and, accordingly, submarines are provided to keep the air. The dress is kept hanging up in readiness in the air pockets so provided. This does not, however, prevent the helmet being in a position to be used in the event of the vessel being completely flooded, and the crew being unable to get out of the vessel.



1. The boat having sunk to the bottom, air will be compressed either under the deck of the vessel itself or under the conning tower. The air will be pumped into the vessel through a hose leading from the conning tower to the surface. The diagram on the right shows a transverse section of a submarine, showing a person in a small compartment in the air line, wearing a diving helmet, and a man operating the conning tower.

HOW MEN ESCAPE FROM A SUNKEN SUBMARINE

# ARTIFICIAL RADIUM BATHS AND DRINKING WATER

BY DR. ALFRED GRADENWITZ

Until quite recently the curative effects of mineral waters were ascribed to the chemical substances held in solution. The lack of mineral solvents in some waters of remarkable therapeutic value could not be explained on this principle. Moreover for some unaccountable reason it was observed that most waters lost their healing properties when taken at some place distant from their source.

All these contradictory phenomena can now be

plainly explained by ascribing part if not all of the curative power to radioactive substances. In fact nearly all mineral waters have been found to contain radioactive emanation. This emanation being an extremely unstable body most waters lose their activity in a few days so that the curative agent cannot exert its action unless the water be administered as soon as possible after issuing from the ground. Only a few waters containing radioactive substances capa-

ble of giving off a constant supply of emanation have been found to keep at least part of their activity for a long length of time.

This tracing of all rays of radiation suggested the artificial control of radiation by so as to impart curative effects to mineral waters and to increase the efficiency of natural springs. The idea of adding variable amounts of emanation has been carried out.

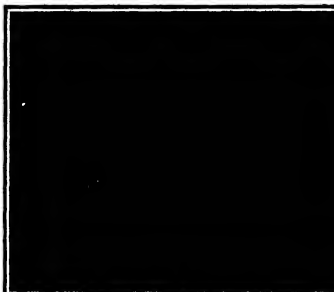
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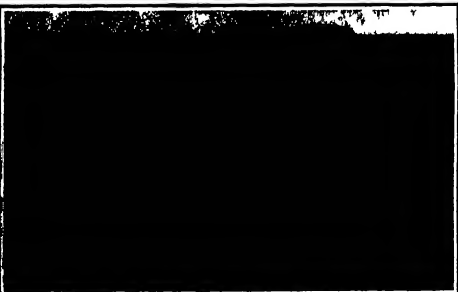
Laboratory for obtaining highly concentrated radioactive substances.



Laboratory for coarse chemical processes.



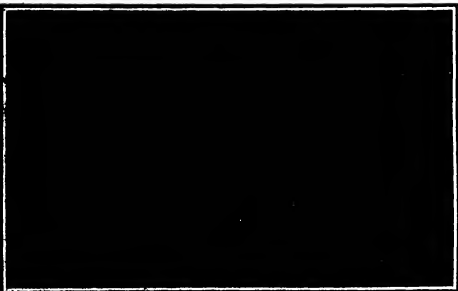
Washing plant for radioactive substances treated by chemical processes.



General view of the famous Kirschbach valley.



Workshop for the preparation of radioactive substances.



Mother liquor shipping room.



# A MOTION APPARATUS FOR AMATEURS

## AN INGENUOUS FRENCH INVENTION

The production of photographs of moving objects has hitherto been desired by amateurs, for various reasons. It requires complicated and costly apparatus and delicate manipulations which cannot be performed without special appliances.

A simple apparatus, called the Cinéphoto, has been devised to obviate these difficulties and to put motion photography within the power of every amateur photographer, at least to the extent of producing animated portraits of his friends and his children, for the Cinéphoto does not pretend to vie with the elaborate apparatus by which thousands of instantaneous photographs of a long and complex scene are impressed on hundreds of feet of film.

small perforations, cause the disk to rotate intermittently, pausing after each advance long enough for a single exposure. At the same time the shutter is automatically caused to open when the disk stops and to close when it resumes its rotary movement. For the disk containing 24 pictures arranged in a circle, the bearing is fixed at the center of the plateholder, but for the disk with 75 spirally arranged pictures, the bearing is free to move in a vertical slide end, as the reciprocating pin engages successively with the spirally arranged perforations, the disk is displaced in such a manner that each picture is made in its proper place in the spiral curve. In either case the movement of the mechanism is automatically arrested when

work and essentially similar to the mechanism employed in making the negatives. But, as only a very fleeting illusion is thus produced by the disks which contain 24 pictures, there is provided, for these disks alone, another apparatus which can be turned by hand, slowly and for an indefinite time, showing the pictures repeatedly in their proper order. A third form of apparatus is furnished for the purpose of projecting the pictures on a screen with a lantern.

A writer in a contemporary refers to numerous failures of cast iron fittings which were, however, of the usual run of commercial extra heavy fittings of which neither the metal nor the thickness were sufficiently

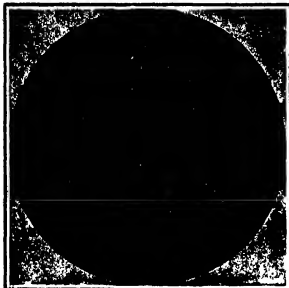


Fig. 1.—Disk with 24 pictures.



Fig. 2.—Watching the motion pictures.



Fig. 3.—Disk with 75 pictures.



Fig. 4.—Apparatus for projecting the motion pictures.

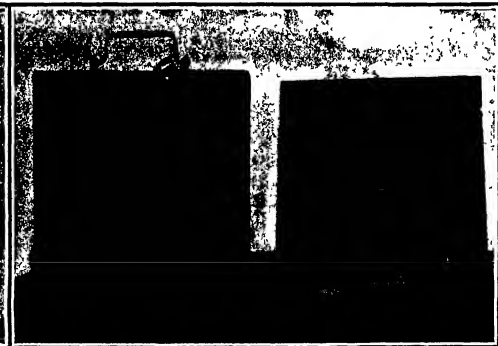


Fig. 5.—Cinéphoto camera and plateholder.

### A MOTION APPARATUS FOR AMATEURS.

The Cinéphoto comprises two distinct pieces of apparatus: one for making the pictures, the other for exhibiting them in such a manner as to give the illusion of movement. Both of these devices work automatically, by means of very simple mechanism. The negatives, which are either 24 or 75 in number, are made on a circular sensitized plate, on which the 24 pictures are arranged in the form of a circle, while the 75 pictures are arranged spirally, as the accompanying illustrations show. In either case, the disk is perforated with small holes, equal in number to the pictures, and distributed at equal angular distances along the same curve—circle or spiral. By means of a larger hole at its center, and a corresponding pin or bearing, in the plateholder, the disk is secured in the latter so that it is capable of being turned freely about its axis. The movement of a bearing then follows a pin, in which a series of small holes are arranged, corresponding to the small holes in the disk. As the disk rotates, the bearing pin passes through the small holes in the disk, and the disk is displaced in such a manner that each picture is made in its proper place in the spiral curve. In either case the movement of the mechanism is automatically arrested when

the entire series of photographs has been made, so that double exposures are prevented.

The lens of the Cinéphoto is either a "Grapher," which is corrected for stigmatism, and can be used with a stop of  $f/8$  to produce satisfactory outdoor views in most weather conditions, or a "Eurygraph," which is very well corrected for spherical and chromatic aberration and gives perfect definition with a stop of  $f/12$ .

As there is no fixed connection between the disk and the mechanism, either single or double plateholders, or even a magazine camera, can be employed.

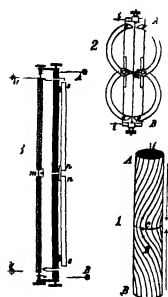
The negatives are developed in the ordinary manner, with the disk of a specially constructed plateholder, which is provided with a series of small holes, which have perforations corresponding to those of the negatives. The moving scenes are reproduced and projected on the screen by a magnifying lens, by means of an automatic mechanism driven by clock

work. The growth of cast iron under repeated heating is discussed and reference is made to Outbridge's work. Steel fittings have also failed, within the author's experience only four out of twenty-five steel gate valves, 6 inches, 8 inches, and 10 inches in diameter, were fairly tight after one year's service. A thoroughly sound steel casting can withstand highly superheated steam, which does not initiate defects but rapidly develops them. Gun iron is high-grade cast iron having a tensile strength of 30,000 pounds or more, and is adapted for 150 pounds of steam with 300 deg F superheat. Analysis of various specimens of iron which failed under 250 drx superheat are given, but the following successfully withstood 250 drx superheat for four years: Silicon, 1.72 per cent, sulphur, 0.002 per cent, phosphorus 0.09 per cent, manganese, 0.48; total carbon, 2.45, combined carbon, 0.17. Low silicon, phosphorus, and carbon characterize it.

## AN INGENUOUS TORSIONAL WAVE DETECTOR

BY THE PARIS CORRESPONDENT OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

Prof. A. G. Hous of the Royal Polytechnic Institute of Turin has devised a new form of detector for use in wireless telegraphy which is of special interest because of the novel principle it employs. He uses the property known as magnetostriction found in iron or nickel wires. A fine iron wire stretched in a magnetic field is found to lengthen at first and then shorten according to the strength of the field the value effect being about 1/400000th of the length of the wire. The inventor sought to increase this effect and to apply it to a detector for waves. The principle of the apparatus is shown in Fig. 1. A fine wire is stretched in a vertical position between two fixed points A and B. Two constant magnetic fields formed by two equal bar magnets magnetize the wire in two halves in the opposite sense with the intensity J J and longitudinally as shown by the arrows. At the same time a current is sent through the wire from C to D and this gives a circular magnetization to the wire with an intensity I. The result of the combined magnetism of the field will be a magnetostriction of the field I. Owing to the effect of magnetostriction the



How the torsional effect is produced

tion between two fixed points A and B. Two constant magnetic fields formed by two equal bar magnets magnetize the wire in two halves in the opposite sense with the intensity J J and longitudinally as shown by the arrows. At the same time a current is sent through the wire from C to D and this gives a circular magnetization to the wire with an intensity I. The result of the combined magnetism of the field will be a magnetostriction of the field I. Owing to the effect of magnetostriction the

wire will have a torsion represented at G in the direction of the arrow, this being what is known as the Wiedemann torsion effect. Leaving the longitudinal field as it is if we reverse the current in the wire the torsion effect will be also reversed. When we send an alternating current through the wire we have a strong effect of vibration as the torsion is also alternating in its sense. A mirror placed at the middle of the wire is used to reflect a beam of light on a screen and the spread of the beam shows the amplitude of the vibration. The effect is much stronger when the period of the alternating current is of the same value as the normal vibration rate of the wire, and we have a much longer line of light on the screen. The wire is of about 0.01 millimeter diameter, and is held under tension between two light springs mounted on an insulating plate. Fig. 8 shows the arrangement, and the springs are coupled to the binding points A and B. Near the ends and at the middle of the wire project three iron points which come from the bar magnets as shown in Fig. 9. A spiral of insulated copper wire is wrapped about the glass tube with the two halves coiled inversely and the current comes from a and b into the wire. The copper spiral is designed to receive the waves from the antenna and it acts to modify the effect which we have seen above to be given by the combination of the alternating current and the bar magnets in the wire. When no waves are received we have a constant torsion effect in the wire, that is a constant rate of vibration. When on the contrary the wave effect occurs in the copper spiral the rate of the vibration is modified and the line of light on the screen is changed. The terminals a and b are connected to a pair of vertical antenna wires which are insulated from ground. All the rest of the apparatus is held insulated on a glass tube support 2 feet from the floor. Light for the beam is given by a Nernst lamp and the same alternating current circuit is used for exciting the wire, using the proper means to secure a very small current through the wire. The copper spiral is joined at the top to the antenna and at the bottom to ground. With such an arrangement the instrument shows the effect of waves received from a distant station and

we notice variations in the beam of light due to this cause. It is designed especially to be used for receiving signals formed by a succession of waves, each wave to follow each other in series so as to form periods of low frequency. The frequency is first adjusted so as to be the same as that of the vibrating wire. Besides the tuning of the high frequency wave, this allows us to use a second or local tuning of the low period wave. It should be remarked that Prof. Rossi's instrument transforms directly an electric vibration of low frequency into a mechanical vibration and contrary to other detectors, there is no transformation of energy between the effect of the same and the registered optical indication. It is thus extremely sensitive.

To have a permanent record of the signals, the author proposes the use of a photographic band descending in front of the beam and as the variations of the latter are slow, we would have a set of wave-like signals printed on the band. By using a selenium cell which is lighted by the beam we could make a Morse register with the instrument, provided a strong enough light is reflected by the mirror on the cell. Owing to the sensitiveness of the instrument there is no doubt that it can be used with a much less expenditure of power at the sending station. On the other hand it is clear the apparatus which is needed at the receiving station. An alternating current generator is not required in this case, but a simple vibrator will give the needed impulses for exciting the stretched wire.

A detector which transforms electrical waves into light

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## THE HEIGHT OF THE ANTARCTIC CONTINENT

BY WALTER LANGFORD

Our knowledge of the Antarctic continent is daily becoming more precise. Soon after Shackleton's recent dash toward the South Pole had furnished very important data in regard to the interior of the continent. Charcot's voyage supplied valuable additions to our knowledge of the boundaries of this vast territory. The French expedition succeeded in surviving a unusually a great many winters of coast life that had previously been entirely unknown or only conjectured after laid down.

The results of these expeditions prove that the mass of land accumulated about the South Pole is even greater in comparison with the other continents than had previously been supposed. The elements involved in this comparison include an estimate of area and a determination of the heights of the mountains. Both of these elements require exact and comprehensive surveys. The problem was first attacked by Humboldt at an epoch when our knowledge of the earth was very incomplete. Hence Humboldt's estimates of the mean elevations of the known continents show the same level are far too low. This mean elevation is the height of a fictitious plateau obtained by distributing the mass of the continent uniformly over its surface. It is the quotient obtained by dividing the volume by the area. Humboldt's estimates of the mean elevations of continents are: Europe 6,500 feet, North America 7,450 feet, South America 11,500 feet, Asia 11,600 feet, entire known land surface of the globe 1,804 feet. Except in the case of Europe, these values differ enormously from the more recent estimates given below. This discrepancy shows the necessity of thorough exploration

and accurate surveys although a general estimate can be obtained from elements of a totally different character as we shall see in connection with the

Antarctic continent. Kruzenstern who was the next after Humboldt to attack the problem estimated the mean elevation of the entire known land surface of the globe at 1,448 feet, a value which was still far below the truth. The latest estimate of Lapparent, based on more complete data was 2,000 feet, or more while the more recent estimates of Murray Penck, Lopus and De Lillo are still higher. Murray's values as revised by Penck are: Europe 818 feet, Australia, 918 feet, North America, 1,968 feet, South America, 3,006 feet, Africa 2,183 feet, Asia 2,114 feet, general land mass, 2,115 feet. From these values which appear to be very nearly correct, the total volume of the continental masses is computed to be about twenty-two million cubic miles.

All of these estimates relate only to those parts of the world that were known at the epoch when the various estimates were made. The recent Antarctic explorations have entirely changed the face of the problem and have raised the Antarctic continent to the first place which has formerly occupied by Asia. The exact and extensive knowledge which we now possess in regard to the other continents is still lacking in the case of the Antarctic, of which we know only the few points that have been reached by the expeditions. Humboldt had endeavored to determine the height of the Antarctic mountains from meteorological data. From the observations of approximately 500 years and the observations of the last few years, we know only the few points that have been reached by the expeditions. Humboldt had endeavored to determine the height of the Antarctic mountains from meteorological data. From the observations of approximately 500 years and the observations of the last few years, we know only the few points that have been reached by the expeditions.

## CURIOSITIES OF SCIENCE AND INVENTION

## REVENUE A TOWN BY RAIL.

Portage heretofore is a town of houses on the Washburn, Mineral Wells & Northwestern Railway in Texas. There are five flat cars loaded with miners' outfits at two rooms each, each room being 12 by 14 by 8 feet. Extreme height above the car is 15 feet 4 inches. In addition there are two cars containing the



A TRAINLOAD OF MINERS' OUTFITS.

head to kitchen, and two cars that carry other wreckage of the coal-mining town of Rock Creek, Texas, whose mines were abandoned. The train was moved successfully at the rate of 15 miles per hour, and around a number of six-degree curves having the outer rail elevated four inches.

## WOODEN FRAMES FOR AIRSHIPS.

When the Zeppelin balloon was destroyed in a thunder storm two years ago it was asserted that a static discharge of electricity from the metallic frame of the balloon had ignited the gas. To obviate such an accident in the future, a German inventor has devised a balloon having a wooden frame, which he claims is



A BALLOON FRAME FORMED OF WOODEN STYLS.

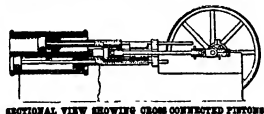
not only lighter than aluminum, but is stronger as well. A frame thus constructed was exhibited at the Frankfurt Exposition last summer, and proved quite an attraction. The accompanying photographs show how the frame is made up in a network of wooden strips which is very strong and yet possesses a considerable degree of flexibility. The model illustrated is 66 feet long and 8 feet in diameter. The meshes of the network are much smaller than in the Zeppelin type of balloon, using aluminum framework. Accordingly, the wooden frame makes a more efficient support for the envelope of the balloon when the gas is expanded by the heat of the sun. Another advantage of the wooden frame is the fact that it can be repaired anywhere, whereas aluminum can be repaired only with special apparatus and by an experienced workman. The wooden frame is not affected by heat or cold, and may be rendered waterproof by coating it with a suitable varnish.



A BALLOON FRAME FORMED OF WOODEN STYLS.

## ENGINE WITH HEADLESS CYLINDERS.

In order to produce a completely-balanced engine, an inventor has recently adopted the unique plan of providing the engine cylinders with two pistons each. The steam enters between the two pistons, separating them. This renders the cylinder heads useless, for there is no reaction against them. One of the pistons is provided with a hollow piston rod to receive the rod of the other piston. The engine shaft is provided with two cranks at right angles to each other, which are respectively connected to the two piston rods. Thus a forward and backward impulse is given simultaneously by the steam entering one cylinder, and there is an equal distribution of the load. When the pistons reach the end of their stroke, steam is admitted to a second cylinder of the same type, which repeats the operation while the first cylinder exhausts. There are no jolts, strains or vibrations, as the forces are entirely absorbed in motion. The ends of the cylinders are preferably closed by suitable doors, to prevent dust or other extraneous matter from entering and choking or clogging the working parts. These doors are shown open in the accompanying photograph. The model illustrated has shown remarkably high efficiency, and is so perfectly



SECTIONAL VIEW SHOWING CROSS CONNECTED PISTONS.

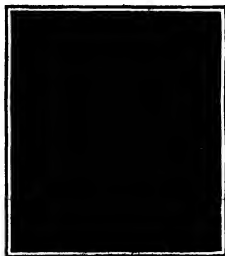


A HEADLESS-CYLINDER BALANCED ENGINE.

balanced that it will run smoothly on the slightest of supports.

## A NOVEL AUTOMATICALLY ADJUSTABLE ORGAN BLOWER.

A novel method of adapting electric motor power to organ blowing is shown in the accompanying engraving. The mechanism comprises an accurately turned hemisphere of aluminum driven by a small electric motor fixed to a bracket swinging horizon-



NOVEL ELECTRIC ORGAN BLOWER.

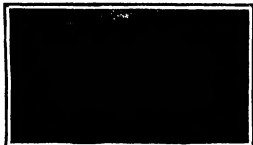
The speed is regulated by a swinging hemispherical friction wheel.

ally on a vertical spindle. The hemisphere drives by friction an ordinary bicycle wheel fitted with a pneumatic tire, as shown in the illustration. There are the usual cycle chain and sprocket gear, for still further reducing the speed, and the final chain wheel transmits the rotating motion to the bellows handle by means of a crank. There is no slip between alumi-

nium hemisphere and the tire, owing to the elasticity of the air cushion, and as they are constantly in contact there is no wear. This ingenious little machine will blow a 16-stop or larger organ silently and with very high efficiency. It requires no attention, and current sufficient to run the motor is obtained by connection with an electric lamp socket. As it is practically silent and occupies a surface of only 45 by 16 inches and is 23 inches in height, it can be placed on the floor beside the instrument. The speed of the motor is constant, but automatic control of the pumping is provided by a chain connection between the swinging bracket and organ reservoir or bellows. By means of this chain the motor and hemisphere may be drawn through an arc of 90 degrees into the position of full organ, while a spiral spring returns them to the neutral position, as shown in the illustration. The rising and falling of the reservoir thus causes the speed of the bellows handle to vary from zero to maximum, and keep the bellows full automatically.

## A NOVEL PADDLE FLYING MACHINE.

The peculiar flying machine illustrated herewith was one of the novelties at the Olympia Aero Show held recently in London. It is the invention of Messrs. Wylie and Ottine, and consists of a large number of small planes arranged in an endow band and driven somewhat after the manner of a tread mill, the idea being that as the planes move along from one end of the machine to the other at a rapid rate they produce



FLYING MACHINE WITH A TRAVELING CHAIN OF LIFTING PLANES.

a lifting effect owing to the slight angle to the horizontal at which they are set. As they move around at one end in passing from the bottom to the top they are at an angle to the horizontal and still produce a lift, while as they descend at the other end their downward movement produces a lifting effect. The machine was exhibited without a motor, but this fact did not detract from its novelty. The idea of the moving planes is that the flying machine will lift itself directly in the air and that no forward motion over the ground will be required.

## A SERPENTINE WHARF.

One of the longest wharves in the world, almost a mile in length, or to be exact, 4,700 feet is at Port Los Angeles, Cal. It extends into the Pacific in a long serpentine curve. The reason for this construction is that it offers better resistance to the strong currents and the buffeting of the waves than if it were perfectly straight. Until the nearly harbor of San Pedro was developed by the Federal government, the big wharf at Port Los Angeles was a very busy place, but of late it is comparatively seldom used except by the Japanese laborers, who have formed a colony along the adjacent beach.



A SERPENTINE WHARF NEARLY A MILE IN LENGTH.







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18

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27. <http://www.fishbase.org>

(Continued from page 104)

the mother liquor this process is very complicated and expensive.

The brine is vaporized in graduating works, the output of which depends on the season, the direction and intensity of the winds, as well as on the temperature of the air. The output of the graduating works (the total length of which is approximately 25 kilometers) is divided into seven compartments of decreasing lengths traversed consecutively by the wind. The brine is gradually increasing as each compartment is traversed. After leaving the last compartment the weak solution is drawn to light to twelve times more concentrated. The brine is then exposed to the wind. Here operation of the plant is difficult in variable winds. On the other hand, the surrounding atmosphere is strongly enriched with large amounts of salt. The wind is also favorable to graduating works a very cool and pleasant place to stay in on hot days, but affords a welcome opportunity for utilizing the curative effects of the retreating

The pumps of the graduating works are operated by a number of water wheels fed from the river Nahe through a system of canals. From the graduating works the brine is pumped through conduits to the reservoirs of the evaporating house, in order there to be boiled

Both the evaporating house and grading works date from the middle of the eighteenth century when the Hallines were erected the ancestors of most of the workmen employed there in having spent their lives in the works.

The primitive boiling process carried out in open salt pans has recently given way to a modern multiple vaporizer with improved devices for recovering the mother liquor and the salt. It consists of a steam boiler and a number of vaporizers and air pumps etc.

As the holding of the brine and mother liquor is carried out *in vacuo* at low temperature the decomposition of valuable chemical compounds is entirely prevented, thus increasing the curative effects of the products.

Where this brine has been used down to 100° C. the concentration has to be contained in 100 gms of common salt a super-saturated solution is obtained from which the salt crystallizes. As the concentration of the brine increases the more the crystallization is increased. The crystallization is carried out by the salt in an acid state. The crystallization is used for various therapeutic purposes. The brine is left after the crystallization of the common salt forms the mother liquor used for other therapeutic purposes and of which about 3000 gms are produced per annum. For shipping purposes concentrated, the mother liquor is further concentrated until it crystallizes in a liquid state.

Experiments commenced in 1961 have shown that the Krestnash water contains not only plentiful amounts of gases but also a considerable amount of dissolved substances. Part of these substances as the water drains the gradients of the water level, the water and air will separate along with rain, oxidized air and will behave along while on the other part remaining in solution form. The water contains a considerable amount of other parts consisting of Krestnash water, Geisel, as well as by Dr. K. Aeschoff, which shows that the residues contain not only a considerable amount of substances, but also thorium and actinium as well. The mother liquor derived from the Krestnash water brine as well as from the bathhouse water, which is used for the production of radonite. Further experiments demonstrated the possibility of isolating thorium from the residues of removal of radon from the water. As a result, the Krestnash yield were 40% of the total radonite by the hydroxide method. It was deemed advisable to attempt the production of radonite salts on a large scale.

Continued on page 472



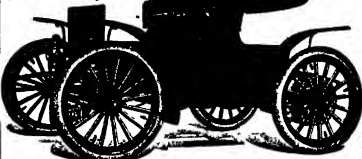
Illustrated by J. L. Spence

(Continued from page 470.)  
The president of the first telephone company in the world is said to be the first person who would have been so rapidly developed. Furthermore, the original inventor and promoter of the telephone were, among all, the best men, actuated by the noble idea of developing the human voice by means of the telephone. Whatever reward they expected or received was the legitimate reward following the legitimate development of a substantial and beneficial business. To develop that business it was first necessary to develop an art. There was nothing like that art in existence at the time. Indeed, the whole art of the practical application of electricity was new.

The telephone is not the only art with which Professor Bell's name is linked. In wireless signaling, too, he made some early experiments which, had they been developed, might eventually have led him into the field of wireless telegraphy and telephony. During experiments which he made on the Potomac River in 1878 and 1879, he succeeded in signaling for over a mile. He informed the writer of this article that an account of his work on the Potomac River which he gave to Preece in England, may possibly have influenced Preece in his own work. His attention was first called to the subject in 1877, when he was experimenting on ground connections. He used poles as terminals. When he threw a pole into the ground and put the telephone to his ear he heard a clock ticking. It was the Cambridge Observatory clock, which he easily recognized because it missed a tick now and then as it regulated the time in Boston. Cambridge was nowhere near Mr. Hubbard's country seat, where the experiments were conducted.

Aerial locomotion is another art with which Professor Bell has become identified. His interest in the subject was aroused when, in 1890, he was conducting kite-flying experiments, largely for the sake of his health. He started with a Hargrave box kite and eventually developed the tetrahedral principle, which is now well known among aeronauts. During the course of his experiments he found that he needed the services of civil and mechanical engineers. Accordingly, a little association was started under the name "Aerial Experiment Association," which included among its members the late Lieut. Selfridge, Glenn Curtiss, Baldwin, and McCurdy, all of them now well known. Baldwin and McCurdy acted as engineers, Curtiss was the motor authority. The association was Mrs. Bell's idea, and was founded to carry on Mr. Bell's own work. She said the only place of property which was here in her own right, and which had not been given to her by Mr. Bell, in order to finance the association. Although these engineers were all originally engaged to help Mr. Bell in his tetrahedral experiments, the members of the association ended by helping one another. Selfridge was the first man who profited by the work, and followed in the footsteps of others, and then to improve on their work, he started with gliders, and finally built the "Red Wing," which won successfully. Next came Baldwin's chance. He embodied his ideas in the "Silver Dart," in which wing tips were introduced, controlling devices which are now the subject of so much controversy. Then came Curtiss' "June Bug," in which the "Red Wing" was modified. The "Silver Dart" was designed by American aviator McCurdy followed with the "Silver Dart." Baldwin and Bell worked at the tetrahedral principle in Nova Scotia, experiments which are not yet concluded. Curtiss remained at Hammondsport, New York, and Selfridge was recalled to Washington by the War Department. The association was so successful that it was necessary to adopt some means of communication. Hence, the weekly bulletin was started under the title "Bulletin of the Aerial Experiment Association," which had a complete illustration of a wing, and which

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served the purpose of keeping the men here in touch with one another.

#### KNOWLEDGE OF THE ANTARCTIC CONTINENT.

(Concluded from page 461)

concludes that, if the continent covers an area of 5,500,000 square miles, as Peary and Krummell assume, its mean elevation above sea level is about 6,600 feet with a probable error of ± 860 feet.

If this estimate is approximately correct, as the results of the recent explorations appear to indicate, the Antarctic continent is by far the highest mass of land on the globe. By the addition of this huge polar cap the mean elevation of the entire land surface of the earth is increased from 2,712 feet to 2,706 feet.

The process by which Melnarck reached these conclusions may be sketched as follows. It was already known that the mean height of the barometer over the northern hemisphere is 0.8 millimeter higher in January than in July, but that the corresponding barometric height for the same distance from the equator to 50 degrees south latitude is 2.1 millimeters lower in January than in July. Hence, as the entire mass of the atmosphere and consequently the average atmospheric pressure over the whole surface of the globe remains constant, the mean barometric height for the zone south of 50 degrees south latitude, which is equal in area to about one-fourth of the southern hemisphere, must be about 3.6 millimeters greater in January than in July.

The observations made by recent explorers, however, led Melnarck to the conclusion that the mean atmospheric pressure over the zone lying between 10 degrees south latitude and the Antarctic circle is not greater, but is 0.71 millimeter less in January than in July. This result increases the height deficit of pressure and restricts the area in which it can be made up to the Antarctic zone, in which, consequently, the mean atmospheric pressure must be 11 millimeters higher in January than in July. Within the Antarctic circle the only observations available for this discussion are those of the ships "Albatross," "Belgica," and "Southern Cross," which together comprise the records of four entire years in three of which the mean atmospheric pressure was lower in January than in July. Thus the area in which compensation for the deficit can be sought is still further restricted, apparently to the Antarctic continent.

Melnarck finds the explanation of this puzzling state of affairs in the great height of the Antarctic continent. The atmospheric pressure diminishes as the elevation of the point of observation increases, and the difference is greater at low than at high temperatures. Hence, in a region where the atmospheric pressure is constant throughout the year at the sea level, it is appreciably higher in summer than in winter at an elevation of several thousand feet. For a given elevation this difference increases with the difference between the summer and the winter temperature. Melnarck and Hann have computed that the mean atmospheric temperature of the Antarctic continent is about 40° F. in January (Antarctic midsummer) and -144° F. in July (Antarctic midwinter). In these conditions it can be calculated that the mean elevation of the Antarctic pressure (11 millimeters) required for the entire Antarctic zone would be fulfilled by a mean elevation of that zone of about 4,000 feet on the assumption of a constant atmospheric pressure over the remaining third which is covered by water. Melnarck arrives at the conclusion that the average height of the Antarctic continent is about 6,600 feet.



**\$15,000 FLYING MACHINE PRIZE OFFERED IN THIS NUMBER**

# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

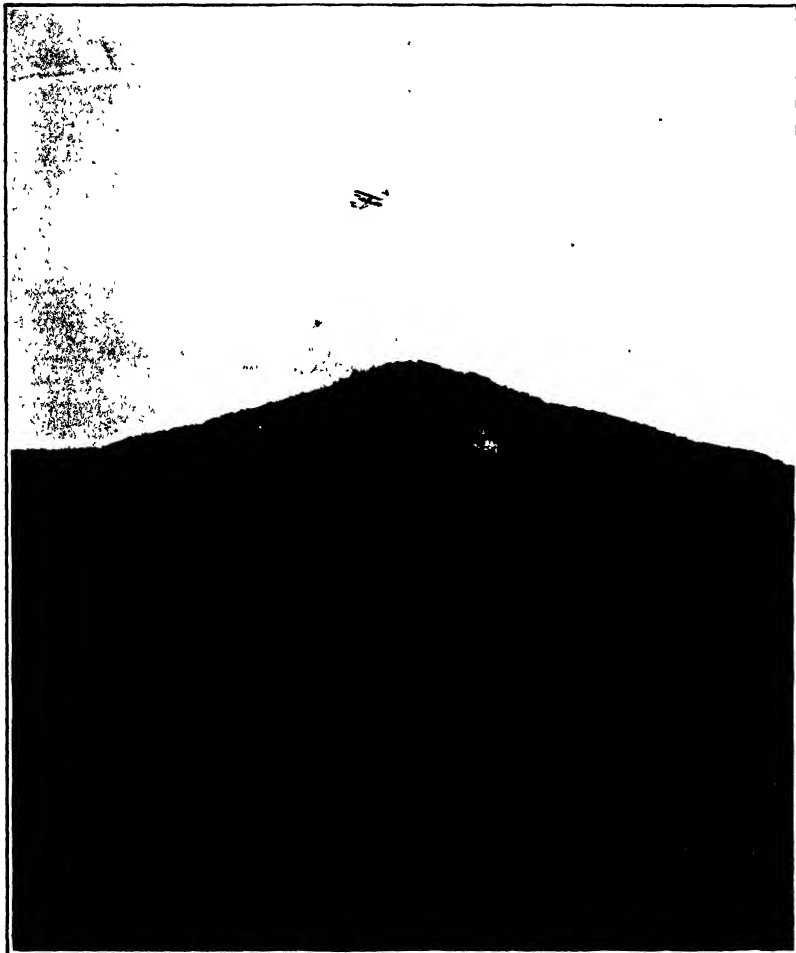
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**A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS**

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THE HISTORIC FLIGHT OF GLENN H. CURTIS DOWN THE HUDSON RIVER.—[See page 490.]



## SCIENCE

**Prof. Edward Friedrich Wilhelm Pfäfers**, he died on March 13th at the age of 81, at the end of over sixty years of single-minded and unwavering devotion to a student of physiology, was best known to the scientific world by the 131 volumes of *Pfäfers Archiv*. To that monumental publication many a distinguished scientist has contributed. Pfäfers himself made a special study of the mechanism of spinal action in the frog and the law of reflex action as studied upon the decapitated animal was one of his earliest investigations. His work on physiological consumption in living organisms has played an important part in our knowledge of the chemical respiration of the tissues.

During the past three months the United States Weather Bureau has introduced a simplified form of weather map, known as the "commercial weather map," for publication in the daily newspapers, and this now appears regularly in about forty papers. This is an innovation of far-reaching importance as it gives a much wider circulation to the information contained in the map than it has had heretofore. While the matter is still in the experimental stage, it appears altogether probable that the newspaper maps will ultimately replace the maps now published by Weather Bureau stations throughout the country, resulting in a great saving of expense to the government and the advantage to the public above mentioned.

Prof. Kraschinsky has studied the power of yohimbine to increase the flow of milk of cows and sheep. The results prove that the yield of milk is increased during the administration of yohimbine, but the increase is not sufficient to make an extensive use of yohimbine as a galactagogue commercially profitable in the case of healthy animals. In the case of a cow, the yield of milk was increased by an influence of yohimbine on the greatly diminished milk yield of a nursing cow, and an increased yield of milk followed. Many similar instances were observed. In no case did any injurious results follow the administration of the medicine. No experiments have yet been made on the influence of yohimbine as a galactagogue in the human species. In this case the question of expense is of the high relative importance and the favorable results obtained with animals appear to promise a successful outcome.

The alloys of iron with metals other than those which enter into the composition of cast iron and steel have been made for many years, but the alloys of iron with arsenic have not been made until recently. In the alloys of iron with arsenic, the arsenic is added in the form of arsenic trioxide. The alloys of iron with arsenic have been made by the following method: The arsenic trioxide is added to the molten iron in the form of a powder. The arsenic trioxide is added in the form of a powder because it is more easily added than the arsenic metal. The arsenic trioxide is added in the form of a powder because it is more easily added than the arsenic metal. The arsenic trioxide is added in the form of a powder because it is more easily added than the arsenic metal.

"The sun grows in the lion's jaws," says Shu-ni, meaning that the sun enters the lion's mouth and that the lion never lowers the highest temperature of the year is exceeded. We may say, on the other hand, that the lion's mouth is supposed to be the place where the sun is the thing of heat. The very word for sun in Chinese is the part of the zodiac which the sun enters at the summer solstice. The constellation which is called Leo in the zodiac is the lion. The Chinese name for Leo is probably the name was originally applied only to its principal star, Regulus. It is to this constellation in the zodiac that we owe the countless water-spewing fountains, because in the latter part of July, when the sun is still in the sign Leo, the Nile is at its greatest flood. The lion's mouth is the place where the widely open jaws is in itself very suitable for the mouth of a fountain or water spout. This decorative motif was employed universally throughout the (Hellenic) world, and is still to be seen in the temple at Athens, Aphrodisia, Olympia, Agrigento, and countless other places. It is not too certain that the employment of the lion's head originated in the East, but it is certainly to be seen in the East, Bahrain, showing water streaming from a ring-shaped vessel. A lion stands as if on guard on either side of the fountain. The water clock, which was used in judicial proceedings, had the form of a lion and a name which means the guardian of the stream. Hence the idea of protection may have been the origin of the fountain. The lion's head is also to be seen in the East, where it was first originated in Asia.

The wireless telegraph station which has been recently erected by the French government on the Channel coast at Boulogne is of interest from the fact that it is the first of its kind in France. The Boulogne Bellini-Tosi system of directed waves. The new plant at Boulogne is operated by the French Postal and Telegraph department and is laid out so as to be completely self-contained. It consists of a transmitter, receiver system. Accordingly the plant has an ordinary vertical antenna and an antenna for directed waves. These aerial systems are supported by four structural towers. The antenna for directed waves is made up of two groups of wires, the Bellini-Tosi antenna consisting of the two towers of wire, is suspended from these. The horizontal section runs around and two leads connect it to the top of the tower nearest the shore, each having six parallel wires spaced 18 feet apart. These antennas form a triangle with the horizontal section near ground level and two leads connect it to the top of the tower furthest from the shore and at the bottom 650 feet. The new station is working with the French stations of Saint-Nazaire, on the Mediterranean coast, and also with the



## THE OCEANOGRAPHIC MUSEUM AT MONACO

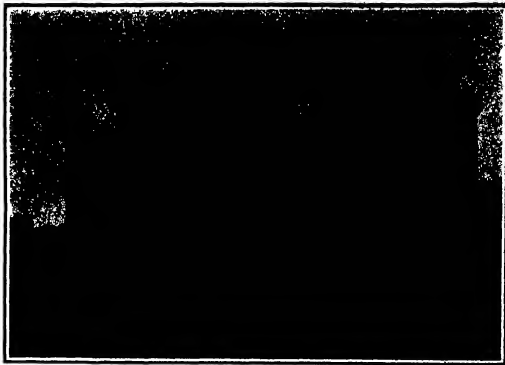
BY DR. ALFRED GRADENWITZ

The Prince of Monaco besides being the ruler of one of the smallest though most charming countries, has achieved fame in the world of science, has endowed his principality with a scientific institute unique in its kind, viz., an oceanographic museum devoted to contain not only the enormous collections brought home from his own voyages of discovery, but generally speaking, everything relating to the investigation of the sea and its inhabitants, animal and vegetable.

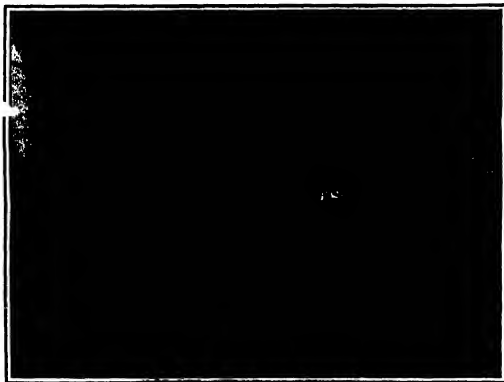
This museum, which was solemnly inaugurated some weeks ago, is situated in a site of surpassing beauty on a precipitous rock dominating the Mediterranean, close to the famous St. Martin Gardens thus allowing of the installation of two basement stories, which open immediately on the sea for the sake of certain scientific investigations. The foundation works of the building had obviously to be most elaborate, the more so as some of the pillars start nearly from the level of the sea.

The building, 100 meters in length, is of a most imposing appearance, and is a masterpiece from an architectural point of view. Some of its monolith columns 8 meters in length, is 16 tons in weight. Most of the motives of decoration are derived from the fauna of the ocean.

When entering the ground floor, we are at first struck by the imposing mosaic floor, on which is represented—likewise in mosaic—the Prince's Allee, the yacht on which the Prince has achieved his most important scientific cruises. Everywhere around the hall are seen ornamental subjects representing fishes



The museum of Monaco.



Skeletons of whales, narwhals, and other ocean giants.

and other inhabitants of the ocean. On both sides a monumental staircase leads up to the first floor.

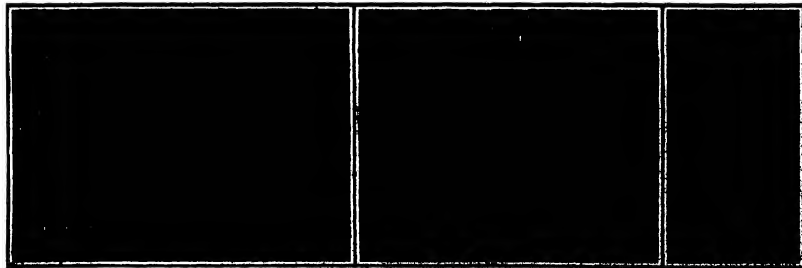
After passing through a huge glass-paneled door, we enter a large assembly hall, 7 meters high, adorned with four beautiful columns of Breccia limestone, from the ceiling of which is suspended in the center an electric lustre representing a medusa. Whereas each of the four angles is taken up by a smaller lustre forming a glass sphere adorned with long prisms reminding of sea anemones, star fishes, and other radiata. In front is seen a large statue of the Prince, representing him on board his yacht searching the horizon.

The western hall is set apart for lectures, can glasses, and other assemblies, a large part of its back wall being taken up by an artistic painting representing the 'Prince's Allee' on an intensely blue and somewhat agitated sea.

The eastern hall is taken up provisionally by sundry collections of zoological subjects and oceanographical instruments, but is destined particularly for the collections brought home from the Prince's voyages, which include the rarest and most beautiful specimens. In fact, the wonderful equipment of the 'Prince's Allee' has allowed the sea to be searched down to a depth of more than 6000 meters, while four expeditions in Arctic districts, beyond 80 deg northern latitude, have yielded specimens of the Arctic fauna, suggestive of the most interesting comparisons with those of the Mediterranean and the Northern Atlantic respectively.

Whereas these zoological collections are housed in the right hand half of the hall, the exhibits on the

(Continued on page 480)



The large assembly and lecture hall of the oceanographic museum of Monaco.

Exposition of marine biological specimens in the oceanographic museum of Monaco.

Exposition of marine biological specimens in the oceanographic museum of Monaco.



strongest winds, additional resistance is given by steel bars attached to masonry anchorages and to the rock.

The superstructure of the bridge is composed of two terminal spans 51 feet and 717 feet long, and two intermediate spans 51 and 482 feet in length. The trusses have a uniform depth of about 6½ feet. The floor beams which connect the top chords of the two attack trusses are 16 inches deep and about 1/8 inch thick.

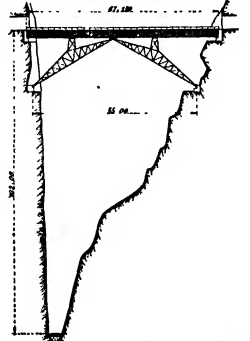
The most interesting feature of the Nam-Ti bridge is the method by which it was erected. Before the various parts of the supporting trusses had reached the tunnel nearest the French possessions a windmill was set up over the mouth of each tunnel and the sides of these windmills were joined together so that material suspended from the junction could be carried across the gorge by unwinding one cable and winding up the other.

The supporting trusses were partly assembled into a few large sections in the tunnels. These sections were then hoisted to their proper places in the trusses which were erected in a nearly vertical position and supported by the ball-and-socket joints of their lower ends and by temporary stays and timbers. The terminal section of the truss, including the socket, was first placed in position on the ball of the joint, which was anchored securely to the rock. The outer halves of the upper chords with the ties and braces lying in their common plane, were next erected. The rectangular frame thus formed, which leaned against the cliff and was also stayed by ropes and timbers, was then attached to the interior of the tunnel by two tackles strong enough to prevent it from being dragged forward by the weight and leverage of the remaining parts as they were added, and to maintain the completed truss in its vertical position. This frame then served as a scaffold for the assembling of the bottom chords of the truss and their attachment to it. In this position of the truss the bars which are perpendicular to the bottom chords were so nearly horizontal that they formed convenient supports for the few planks on which the workmen stood. After the bottom of the truss had been completed, the lower halves of the top chords were assembled in the same manner some of their auxiliary parts being temporarily omitted in order to lighten the lower ends of the truss. The parts were temporarily joined by means of lathe-turned bolts in order to secure the greatest possible precision, but the construction of the supporting trusses was so far in advance of that of the railway that it was found possible to replace most of the bolts by rivets before the track had been extended to the gorge. Meanwhile in order to save time, a line of cables, marching in a zig-zag pattern, carried through the tortuous mountain passes for more than 15 miles, the two heavy chains, each 800 feet long, which were employed in lowering the supporting trusses to their final positions. The other machinery required for this purpose, as well as the sections of the upper table of the bridge, was brought by rail.

The lowering was accomplished by means of two great pulley blocks, anchored to the face of the cliff above the tunnels and connected by the two long chains with two similar blocks attached to the upper ends of the trusses. The cables were first drawn taut in order to slacken the temporary tackles attached to the interior of the tunnels and also to their removal. The trusses were then slowly paid out by means of windlasses provided with brakes, allowing the two trusses to turn around their outer ends like the halves of a binnacle drawbridge, until their lower ends came together. In order to facilitate this operation, both trusses carried signals at their lower end, and one of them, which was lowered a little after the other, bore both parts of the hinge joints by which the trusses were to be connected.

The outer parts of the trusses were then added, a bed plate was constructed over their junction, and a girder, which had been partly assembled in frames of two parts, was erected over the middle of each truss.

The upper table of the bridge was assembled, as a continuous beam, in a straight and not very long excavation in the tunnel floor. As its construction progressed it was moved forward with the aid of rollers placed on the two piers and the junction of the supporting trusses, until it had been completed and its forward end had reached its abutment on the opposite side of the gorge. The connections between the four spans were then removed. The construction of the bridge was commenced in March, 1903, and was



Side view of the bridge and section of the gorge, with dimensions in meters.

completed to November of the same year.—G. BOLLN, in *La Géographie*.

At the Höganäs coal mine in the south of Sweden, since the Iron and Coal Traders' Review experiments have been carried on for some time with the smelting of the iron ore by means of Swedish coal. These experiments were at first conducted with a Grönblad furnace using coal of an inferior quality, for which it was desired to find an outlet. Later the chief director of the Höganäs coal mine undertook to conduct

#### Recent Spectroscopic Study of the Sun.

The physical interpretation of the changes produced in the lines of the solar spectrum, by terrestrial weather conditions and by passing from one to another point of the sun's disk, is still under discussion. While the solar spectrum is not a continuous spectrum, the solar refractive index is not a constant, and the changes of temperature occurring in the stormy solar atmosphere, nor does it admit that the peculiarities of spark spectra are characteristic of the sun's temperature. Electric vibration of atoms may be excited in a cold gas, as is proved by the aurora. Whittaker attributes the observed changes in the spectrum to great pressure. Curtis and Brereton, on the other hand, defend the usual interpretation, which attributes the changes to high temperature, radial velocity and chemical action. Brereton does not admit that pressures much greater than atmospheric can exist in the sun, even at the bottom of the reversing layer. This opinion is based upon the sharpness of spectral lines in general. But the hypothesis implies that in the sun gravitation is everywhere opposed by repulsive forces. Until recently the spectro-heliograph was applied chiefly to the lines H and K. These were obtained images of the foculi, those bright clouds of calcium vapor which almost cover the slit of the spectro-heliograph. Since 1900, following the example of Hale, the red line of hydrogen, which shows entirely different forms, has also been employed. This has led to the discovery of long dark filaments which normally persist for several weeks, but which sometimes disappear or change rapidly near very active spots. According to Deslandres these filaments represent tornadoes with horizontal axis. They are exhibited especially by the middle part of the line H $\alpha$ , which corresponds to the upper limit of hydrogen vapor. The marginal portions of the same line show dark foculi, which are reversals of the calcium foculi.

The photographs made by Hale, at Mt. Wilson, with this same line, show the spots surrounded by cyclonic structures, which exhibit opposite rotations in the north and south hemispheres. These spirals are far less frequently observed in ordinary photographs. Can they be trajectories of material particles? The first evidence, furnished by Hale, consists in the doubling and the polarization of the spectral lines in the interior of the spots. These phenomena suggest the circulation of electrified matter in a magnetic field. Evered sought further evidence by playing the slit of the spectrograph across a spot near the sun's limb. In this case radial velocities in opposite directions should be found on opposite sides of the spot. Instead of this, however, Evered found numerous and persistent indications of a tangential movement, always directed from the center of the spot. These results were obtained chiefly with the lines of iron. Possibly both movements coexist at different levels, the one in the photosphere and the other in the chromosphere.

Beckel, who discovered that the dark lines of the solar spectrum become bright or reversed in a narrow stream at the base of the chromosphere during a total eclipse, contended that this reversal could be observed at ordinary times. Hale and Adams have confirmed his view by photographing the reversed spectrum. Their success appears to be due to the very delicate adjustment of the slit in the spectrograph which enabled them to keep the slit of the spectrograph accurately tangent to the sun's limb. The wave lengths of 184 of the lines were measured and were found exactly equal to those of the corresponding dark lines of the solar spectrum. This perfect agreement could not be expected if, as Julius suggested, the bright lines are due to the light of the photosphere, affected by anomalous dispersion.

One of the supporting trusses, as erected, in a vertical position.

The completed structure; the rails of which are 82½ feet above the river.

#### THE NAM-TI BRIDGE.

the experiments independently, and it appears that he has now obtained favorable results, and that sufficient data have been collected to allow of exact calculations and estimates being made. The owners of the Höganäs coal mine—the Billshammar Aktiebolag—have, in consequence, resolved to build a furnace with a capacity of 15,000 tons of fine iron ore per annum. When this furnace has been tested in practice with the view of discovering possible faults, the intention is to erect also other furnaces of the same size and capacity.

To obtain light woods made a preparation of an ounce of borax, dissolved in a pint of water, and two ounces of alcohol. The liquid is then to be heated until a perfect solution is obtained, then add in two teaspoonfuls of glycerine, and completely by the use of a vacuum of suitable apparatus, then to evaporate the liquid, which will now be ready for use.



# THE ALBANY-NEW YORK AEROPLANE FLIGHT

## HOW CURTISS COMPLETED FOR THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN TROPHY AND THE NEW YORK WORLD PRIZE



Of the three attempts that have been made to fly from New York to Albany, or vice versa, the first two were made last fall by dirigible balloons, and were unsuccessful, while the third attempt was made recently by an aeroplane, and resulted in a brilliant prize-winning flight.

The New York World, which we previously mentioned a prize of \$10,000 last summer for the performance of this feat during the Hudson-Putnam celebration afterward extended the time within which it could be completed for to October 10th, 1910. Only a few weeks ago after the exciting airplane race of Postlan and White from London to Manchester, England, for the \$50,000 prize of the London Daily Mail it was decided to amend the rules and permit the making of two stops en route, while the time limit for the completion of the trip was set at 24 hours. As soon as the modifications were announced, Glenn H.

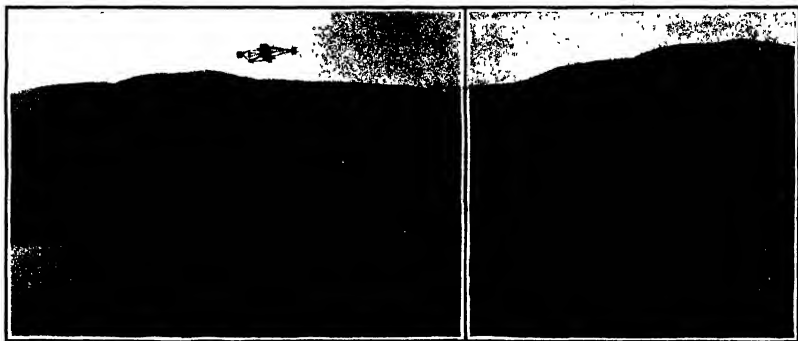
After making a number of flights over Lake Keuka, at Hammondsport, N. Y., and landing successfully upon the water, Mr. Curtiss shipped his aeroplane to Albany and took a prospecting trip on the steamboat from the capital to the metropolis. He found practically no suitable landing places on the river banks throughout the entire journey. At Poughkeepsie, however, a mile back from the east shore, he selected a landing place on the farm of Mr. W. F. Gill. Upon reaching New York Mr. Curtiss gave notice that he

would attempt to win the cash prize of the World and also the Scientific American Trophy for the third consecutive time, which would give him the cup permanently. He then returned to Albany to superintend the assembling of his biplane. This was accomplished in a tent pitched upon Van Buren's Island, a mile south of the railroad bridge at Albany. A heavy rain caused delay in assembling the biplane and kept the aviator from starting on Thursday, May 26th, while Friday the flight was impossible of accomplishment because of stormy wind.

Early Saturday morning Mr. Curtiss went to the island. Everything was in readiness for the flight, and the weather appeared to be perfect, but just as the aviator was about to start a wind sprang up, and he was obliged to again postpone his attempt. Sunday morning dawned bright and clear without any signs of wind, and after waiting till 7 A. M. to see if the wind would increase, Mr. Curtiss started three minutes thereafter. Circling to the north so as to pass within the city limits of Albany just below the railroad bridge, the aviator headed down the river at a 50-mile clip against a wind



Just before the start at Albany.



The biplane passing over Long Island, the government explosives manufactory.

Curtiss plunging down the Hudson at 50 miles an hour.

Curtiss, the first winner of the Bennett cup race in France last year and twice the winner of the Scientific American Trophy, began experiments with a new and powerful biplane at Hammondsport, N. Y., with a view to landing upon water. He had already experimented last fall upon rising from the water, and, although unable to accomplish this, had attained a speed of 30 miles an hour with his small biplane resting on pontoons and driven by its air propeller and 35 horse power 4-cylinder Curtiss aeromarine motor. It was therefore a comparatively easy matter to fit his new and larger biplane with cylindrical floats and an airtight canvas bag running the length of the wood strut that connects the front and rear wheels.



Photo copyright, 1910 by Frederick H. Newlin

The landing at Governor's Island, N. Y.

THE ALBANY-NEW YORK AEROPLANE FLIGHT.

of 4 or 5 miles an hour velocity. He rose quite rapidly to a height of 1,000 feet, and followed the course of the river for 7½ miles to Poughkeepsie. As he came in sight of the railway bridge at this point, he was flying at an elevation of about 600 feet. He increased his height somewhat as he neared this 315-foot-high structure, which he passed several hundred feet above. Three miles beyond the bridge he circled instead on the east side of the river, and landed at 8:30 on the field at Olean, which he had previously selected. The 7½ miles had been covered in 1 hour and 33 minutes at a rate of speed of 33.33 miles an hour. The prize money of \$10,000 was paid him at once.



## An Aerial Torpedo.

BY W. A. JONES.

One of the most remarkable demonstrations of the possibilities of wireless has been made in London last month, when Mr. Thomas Raymond Phillips, a Liverpool engineer, obtained a series of experiments on a small scale with a dirigible balloon entirely manipulated and controlled from the earth. These tests were made at the Hippodrome one of London's largest theaters. Mr. Phillips employed a dirigible on the lines of the Zeppelin, but only 20 feet long. The model complete weighed about ten pounds and the aerostat was filled with hydrogen.

During the demonstration the inventor stood on the stage of the theater while his machine maneuvered about over the auditorium. He had by his side a keyboard something like that of a typewriter but rather larger, and in reality composed of a number of push switches, none of which was a small transmitter similar to that used in ordinary wireless telegraphy. By merely pressing the keys Mr. Phillips showed that he could make his dirigible do anything he liked. He would press a switch over and the machine would promptly rise, the situation of another key would produce a descent, forward and backward motion was also obtained with perfect certainty as well as circular flight and point-to-point flying. The dirigible which hovered very in trigate slowly. The experiments lasted some hours but never once did the model fall to the point that the inventor had announced. It was about to do. The most effective demonstration however, was that in which the use of such a machine in warfare was shown. The car of the dirigible had a trap door four inches under the control of the operator. When after maneuvering the machine over a certain spot, opened a switch which caused the trapdoor to open and allowed a number of paper bullets to fall down.

The mechanism of the invention is extremely simple and one that could be made perfectly reliable. In the car of the dirigible are a number of solenoids suited to different electric wave lengths, and these control small switches which pull in and three out of action two sets of propellers in the trapdoor, and the system of lamps whereby the dirigible can be lit up when desired. The accumulators for working the propellers and lighting the lamps are carried in the car. The directional control of the dirigible is effected in a horizontal plane by a pair of propellers hung out from each side of the car on outriggers similar to those of the "Zeppelin." Either or both of these can be driven, and they can also be reversed (either singly or together) so that the machine can be steered to the right and to the left, in a straight course, or reversed back in its own tracks without turning round.

Two horizontal propellers can be made smaller than the drive screws are also attached by outriggers to the machine, and provide the means for control. In a vertical plane. The machine is so balanced as to be approximately equal in weight to the air it displaces, consequently, when the horizontal propellers are not working it neither rises nor falls, but can be made to ascend or descend by pulling them in motion. Thus by using one vertical propeller and the horizontal ones the machine can be caused to move in a spiral path, and by cutting out the vertical screws it can be made to rise straight up.

The switches whereby the machine is controlled alter the wave length of the electricity produced at the transmitter, all the other switches on the dirigible being tuned to different wave lengths.

The demonstrations have been so successful that the British War Office have investigated the matter, and it is understood that they have taken the invention up. At any rate, this with a full sized machine are shortly to be made and if these are successful the invention will be bought by the government. The dimensions of the full sized war machine will be 60 feet long and 6 feet in diameter, and it will be capable of carrying nearly a ton of explosives and of exploding while the radius of action will be well over 100 miles. Its speed will be about thirty miles per hour.

# MR. EDWIN GOULD OFFERS \$15,000 TO THE SUCCESSFUL DESIGNER AND DEMONSTRATOR OF A SAFE HEAVIER-THAN-AIR FLYING MACHINE EQUIPPED WITH MORE THAN ONE MOTOR AND MORE THAN ONE PROPELLER.

The facsimile letter of Mr. Edwin Gould, printed on this page, in which \$15,000 is offered for the best successful heavier-than-air flying machine, driven by more than one motor and one propeller, speaks for itself. It may be pointed out, however, that Mr. Gould, in offering his prize, has been moved by other considerations than those involved in a sporting contest. Heavy, long-distance flights, speed tests, and other record breaking performances, have no doubt done much to bring the flying machine prominently before the public, but it must be admitted that, besides whetting the natural human appetite for competition and driving home the truth that the flying machine is destined to play an important part in future human affairs, such contests add the art but little.

It is Mr. Gould's primary intention to further aeronautical invention and with that end in view he offers a prize not for the fastest flying machine, but for a

*St. Louis Southwestern Railway Company.*  
Office of the President  
Edwin Gould, President  
405 Broadway  
New York  
June 2, 1910.

To the Editor,

The Scientific American,  
New York City.

Dear Sir—

In order to promote progress in aviation, I offer through the Scientific American, a prize of \$15,000, which is to be given to the inventor who designs and demonstrates in this country the best heavier-than-air flying machine equipped with more than one propeller and with more than one independent motor, in such manner, that the motors can be operated together or independently.

My object in offering the prize is to encourage the invention of a heavier-than-air flying machine which will be able to continue in safety on its course, even though one of the driving devices should break down.

In order that the efficiency of the inventions may be thoroughly tested, it will be necessary to subject them to endurance tests of stipulated length of time or distance.

Full conditions governing the award of the prize will be announced in a later issue of the Scientific American.

Very truly yours,

*Edwin Gould*

## MR. EDWIN GOULD'S OFFER OF A \$15,000 AVIATION PRIZE

type of flying machine which has thus far not been constructed. Absolute safety must certainly be attained before a flying machine can ever become even a popular vehicle of pleasure, and the attainment of safety is the chief object which Mr. Gould has in view. The conditions which will govern the novel contest which will be inaugurated by Mr. Gould's magnificent offer have not been decided upon as yet. They will require deliberation. It is hardly likely that we shall be able to publish them for three or four weeks. In the meanwhile, the Editor will gladly consider any suggestions which the readers of this journal may make so that conditions may be drawn which will be fair and which will best serve the object of the prize.

Kinetic energy is the power stored in a moving object which keeps it in motion. By way of illustration, suppose a railway train running along a straight, level stretch of track, the train being driven to its power limit. If the source of power, say the steam pressure, is now suddenly removed by closing the throttle, the train will continue to run or coast, for a long distance, due to its kinetic energy, gradually reducing in speed until the energy is exhausted and the train stops.

## Ropeless study of the Sun.

The sun can be studied with considerable ease now by the possession of solar telescopes, consequently the announced discovery is anomalous; but astronomers are constantly placing their chief reliance on the statistical results of precise measurements made during long-continued observations, and they do not accept the physical theories advanced until after a long period of probation. Recent data which have been admitted and used in the past years are a case in point. Thus, the silence of the sun's rotation determined by Carrington fifty years ago, which are still used in the reduction of the photographs taken daily at the English observatories, have been called into question. There has existed the same measurements made by Peters between 1880 and 1887, which fill the gap between Carrington's work and the Greenwich photographs. He reaches the surprising conclusion that the sun spots of the northern and southern hemispheres revolve about two different axes, which make with each other an angle of 6 minutes. The spots appear to be affected by a general drift which changed direction about 1885.

The hypothesis of a planetary influence on sun spots has been often discussed and generally rejected. In its favor, however, may be cited the proved fact that the sun has more than 100 times the number of spots which was announced for 1905, was delayed nearly two years, and that this extraordinary increase was predicted by Brown as a consequence of the motions of Jupiter and Saturn.

The solar activity gradually decreased in 1909, as had been expected. Nevertheless, a large number of spots remained visible from November, 1908 to April, 1909. The group which appeared in September, 1908, was found to be connected with a violent magnetic storm. Lockyer's photographs made with the spectroheliograph, show that the principal spot was gradually obliterated by clouds of calcium which exhibited a cyclonic structure thirty hours before the maximum of the storm. Numerous cases of this kind have been observed. Since Mitchell Smith observed that an extraordinary outburst of activity in the same spot was quickly followed by a violent and prolonged agitation of the magnetic needle. This group of spots affected the earth's magnetism in four successive revolutions. In two of which it produced a disturbance at intervals of five days. This fact suggests the influence of two limited and divergent beams analogous to the double tails of certain comets.

The tendency to recurrence at intervals of 27 or 28 days, is well established for magnetic storms and aurora. The question has been asked whether other terrestrial phenomena do not similarly show the influence of the sun's rotation. From the records of cyclones in the Indian Ocean, Maudslayi made that an interval of 27 days is of common occurrence. The first results of the total eclipse of 1908 have been published. The report of Macdonald's expedition may that the sun's rays are visible at all epochs, of great extent in the middle latitudes, but that it was distinguished by certain features from all previously observed coronae. The coronal rays or streamers showed no connection with the protuberances.

The United States during February produced big iron at a rate which equaled 31,850,000 gross tons the month. During March the production was 31,000,000 tons, and in December about 31,450,000 tons. In commenting on these figures, the Iron Age considers it is questionable whether that February rate will be maintained during March, since the daily quantity of coke and anthracite furnaces is less at the beginning of the month was 84,854 tons, whereas the daily rate of production for February was 85,615 tons. It is hard to realize," the Journal remarks, "that in February the production was more than 40 per cent and above that of February of last year, and nearly 3 1/2 times that of February two years ago, and yet that so little metal is pressing on the market. . . . It is not surprising that in a market of this magnitude, the quantity of the commodity to absorb big iron at the present rate throughout the year."

# DR. ROBERT KOCH, THE FATHER OF PREVENTIVE MEDICINE

BY JOHN B. HUBER, A. M. M. D.

Dr. Robert Koch died on May 27th last. To estimate the value of his work, we can only consider how humanity suffered from diseases before his time.

Before the beneficent inoculations of Jenner, epidemics of smallpox devastated vast regions, decimating cities and wiping out whole towns and villages. Nearly every warfare was met with a pock-marked survivor. The dreadful history of the bubonic plague is lost in the mists of antiquity. To go no further back—an epidemic of it was the last of those seven plagues that afflicted Egypt. Those 10,000 Israelites and Philistines at Bethshemesh, and those 70,000 others were destroyed by the microscopic *Bacillus pestis*. Before and since the Trojan war (in which this germ did its greatest execution), throughout the middle ages, and indeed up to our time, scores of epidemics of the bubonic plague have wrought ghastly havoc. One of these, the Black Death of the fourteenth century, destroyed most miserably (so Gibbon computed) one-fourth the population of the then known world.

Malaria, though not so death-dealing an agency, has nevertheless dreadfully affected the works of humankind. To cite but the one historic instance given by W. H. I. Jones of Cambridge: As is so often the case in history, the conquering Greeks under Alexander were conquered by the India they invaded, and its weapon was one much more potent than the sword—it was the microscopic malarial plasmodium. Upon its invasion the Greeks began to "lose much of their intellectual vigor and manly strength."

Consider finally tuberculosis—consumption—which has probably always afflicted mankind. At any rate Hippocrates twenty-two centuries ago, wrote of it as the disease which above all others caused the most suffering and the greatest number of deaths. The dreadful infections here mentioned, though more gruesomely picturesque in their ravages, have been dwarfed by consumption. In the nineteenth century fourteen million died in war, by bullet and steel and camp diseases, during the same period thirty millions succumbed to consumption. From time immemorial every third or fourth adult—in some communities every adult—has succumbed to insidious phthisis. Yet white have introduced this disease among negro "brethren," who die of it in greater numbers than we do, and among our Indian "wards" who are fast disappearing by reason of our tuberculosis, aided and abetted by our "five wars." Who has not, either in his father or among his friends, had to endure some experience of the "Great White Plague"? Think of it! Between adolescence and the fifty-fifth year, in those years when young men and young women contemplate marriage, when wives should be strong to rear their children, when husbands should be strong to maintain their homes, when we should be strong to do the world's work, in those most precious years tuberculosis has throughout the centuries been claiming every third or fourth of our race. Consider how often the wage earner has first succumbed; and how, through the many months and the years of this chronic disease, his family must endure the privations imposed by it, and oftentimes in turn themselves become its victims. The world, moreover, has lost treasures immeasurable by reason of the untimely murder of men and women of genius in tuberculosis, "death's direct door to most hard students, divines, physicians, philosophers, deep lovers, poets to religion." Tuberculosis has ever been

as much as such a depressing vocal and economic factor as it had been a death-dealing infection, every year our nation alone has been furnishing by reason of it a monetary loss of more than a thousand millions of dollars.

Reflect upon all these things, and then turn the mind to the year of Koch's birth—1843. In that year Pasteur entered the university.

And let us premise here that in science great names are landmarks, and the owners of these names have traversed and gleamed in the fields where many a devoted and now forgotten laborer has delved and sown and perhaps sweated blood. It should indeed be a comfortable observation that in science at least no man works in vain. Pull many a one has given his whole life to establishing a fact, or indeed only an

of the earth, Koch clearly demonstrated how this business was to be done.

When Koch was seventeen he persuaded his father to get him a microscope. Possessed of this most congenial companion, he set about perfecting other technical means of investigation. For even genius cannot work effectively without good tools. After attaining his doctorate in medicine he became a simple country doctor, until the time which—nourished to relate—every beginner in practice has a plenty, in scientific study experimentation, research, and writing. In those years he laid all the foundation of his future greatness. At that time he was not enrolled in any world-famous institution, nor had he millions at his back. Such aids to success are not to be

dreaded, yet it is amazing how frequently genius, burning unquenched in the service of humankind, has managed to get along without them, how they never avail at all in the absence of the right man.

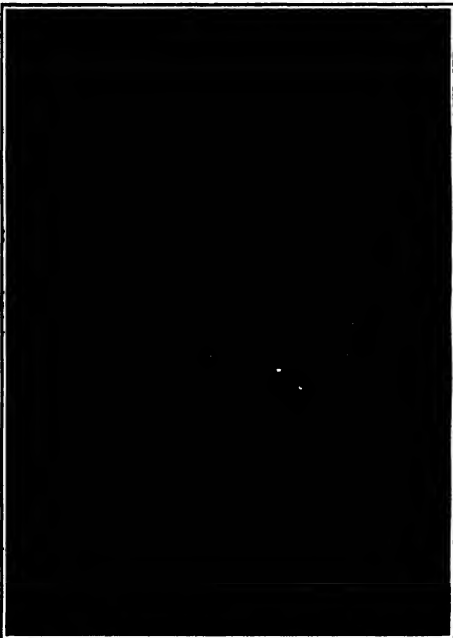
But soon the German government became convinced of Koch's writings. That government recognized the work of the world, it availed itself of ability, it engaged Koch in its service.

It 1882 came his truly epochal discovery of the tubercle bacillus, the essential cause of tuberculosis. Here was laid down the more and scientific basis of the anti-tuberculous propaganda which has since been so successfully winning. Upon this foundation were preventive measures intelligently formulated and with wonderful result up to our day. In Prussia (Koch's own country) the consumption mortality has been reduced forty per cent, in Baden forty-five per cent, in New York city fifty per cent. In our northern cities twenty per cent in the years of 1904. And it is being confidently predicted on the basis of the prophylaxis thus far achieved that our ill death—yes, even we in this generation—may see this dreadful scourge of the centuries all but eliminated from human experience. Koch's elaborated verum tuberculin diagnostic of tuberculosis, their curative properties, have unfortunately proved disappointing, yet they were the basis of the wonderfully effective anti-toxins of diphtheria, tetanus and the most agonizing of all diseases of which formerly nearly all the sufferers died: meningitis, pneumonia, and other dreadful infections.

And Koch's achievements in tuberculosis were only a part of his service to mankind. In 1885 he discovered the cholera bacillus which is responsible for that disease. In the investigation of other world scourges—scarlet fever, bubonic plague, septicemia (blood poisoning), typhus, pneumonia, cholera, anthrax—he has been a discoverer or as originator or developer of prophylaxis and curative methods.

He showed how malaria could be absolutely vanquished by stamping it out of the island of Brion in the Adriatic, under commission of the Austrian government. In Hombay he studied the bubonic plague at first hand. When his studies, however, he revealed to a Douglas Island in Florida, Nyamias his only white companion being an army surgeon and thorough, the whole of eighteen months they together saw but three other whites. A rough canoe, broken up of a single log, was their only means of communication with the mainland. There Koch discovered the crocodile's blood to form the chief nourishment of the tsetse fly, the blood-sucking insect that transfers the

(Continued on page 482)



DR. ROBERT KOCH

them to a fact, his industry unrecognised, ridicule and even persecution oftentimes his only compensation, living perhaps in the pitifullest destitution, yet his life and his works have been absolutely essential to the universal science. There is the human unit, and there is the welfare and the very existence of the race, which latter were impossible without the self-sacrificing labor of the individual.

Nor does it in any wise detract from the gratitude due the great man, that he had prodded by the labors of others, adding what he saw of his own, scrutinizing every detailed detail in the whole fabric permeating and illuminating it with his own mind, and extracting from the mass the mighty deductions of genius. Thus did Jenner's inoculations, upon the principle of fighting fire with fire, make clear the way for Davaine and Lister and Pasteur, upon whose structures Koch built. These latter developed the germ theory of disease, Koch made of this theory the science of bacteriology, which is to-day the most potent factor in civilization. Pasteur declared it to be within human power to banish all parasitic diseases from the face



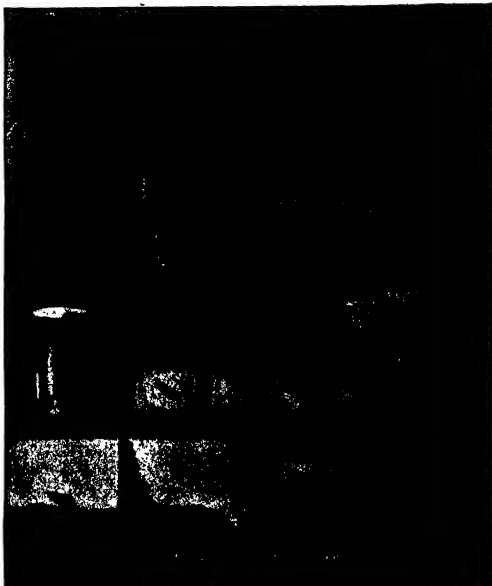
# The Collection and Preservation of Moths and Butterflies

BY FREDERICK M. SCHWED

The most beautiful members of that very large zoological class termed insects are butterflies and moths. Because of their beauty they have always received more or less attention from collectors young and old. Many have started to gather these insects, but because of lack of the knowledge of how to preserve them their so-called collections have spoiled, and the specimens have become broken and moth-eaten. In the following words I shall endeavor to describe, with out the use of scientific terms a method in which to preserve their captures, and which gives such pleasing results that the finished labor will be a source of enjoyment both to the collector and his friends.

The specimens must be caught before being preserved therefore, it will be most convenient to begin with a description of the primary requisites for this work.

**The Net.**—The frame or rim of the net is easily made from a piece of iron or telegraph wire about forty-two inches long. This wire is bent in the form of a loop, leaving two straight ends, each about four inches long, in the manner shown in the illustration 1. Some sort of rod must then be secured, to serve as a handle. A broom handle answers this purpose very well, but a rod about an inch in diameter and five feet long can be procured at any lumber yard for a few cents. Through this rod about



1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 show the details of net and handle. 7, Chloroform on insect. 8, Kerosene glycer. 9, Glass for holding dying insect. 10, Forceps for preserving dried insects. 11, Packing pin through a specimen. 12, Beading wings into horizontal position. 13, Placing insect in a board. 14, Insect between glass plates before mounting. 15, Insect mounted, showing glass sheet.

COLLECTION AND PRESERVATION OF MOTHS AND BUTTERFLIES

half an inch from the top a hole is drilled, as shown in Fig. 1. The straight ends of the wire are pushed through this hole, one from either side. The projecting ends are fastened against the handle with staples or wire wound around. (See Figs. 2, 3, 4, and 5.) Only the making of the bag remains. For this purpose barbed or other fine netting of a brown or green color should be used. Mosquito netting is rather coarse and should not be used, as it scratches the wings of the insects. The bag should be about twenty inches deep and the bottom rounded as in Fig. 6. It may then be attached to the rim by means of tape.

**How to Kill the Insect.**—When the insect is fluttering in the net, the question arises how to kill it painlessly and quickly. This may be accomplished in several ways. Most collectors use a cyanide bottle, which is prepared in the following manner: In a wide-mouthed glass are placed a few lumps of cyanide of potassium. Upon these is poured plaster of Paris to the depth of one inch. When the plaster is dry the bottle is tightly corked, and must not be left uncorked. The body of the insect is gently held between the thumb and index finger (7) and a drop of chloroform is dropped upon its head from a steel carrier in the pocket. The insect immediately stops its fluttering and may then be taken from the net and placed. (Continued on page 490.)

## BERTILLON AND THE BURGLAR'S "JIMMY"

BY JACQUES BOYER

The police officer or magistrate engaged in the elucidation of a crime, endeavors to collect as many exact facts as possible and the more methodically he seeks evidence and gives a logical grouping to his evidence, the greater is his chance of discovering the true cause and the perpetrator of the crime.

M. Bertillon, the celebrated chief of the anthropo-

metric service of the French police, has recently invented a dynamometer of special character, which will facilitate judicial investigations by furnishing exact measurements of the muscular efforts which are manifested in the violent entry into a house, room, or desk, and by making it possible to reproduce the traces of his work which the burglar has left on doors

and articles of furniture. The apparatus consists of a steel frame, which is attached by screws to a wooden table. It contains a lower plate which can move forward and back, two lateral supports stiffened by curved braces, and a cross piece of steel attached by strong bolts to the tops of these posts. This frame carries

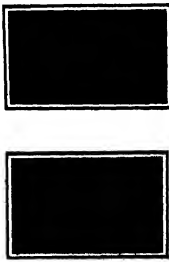
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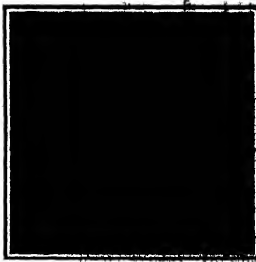
The Bertillon extraction dynamometer—a mechanical detective.



Impressions of the three fundamental types, showing the force in kilograms required to produce each.



A KIDNAPING BURGLAR DETECTOR.



The Bertillon extraction dynamometer, which records force required to move a door open.

#### 440 WATER HEATER FOR KITCHEN BOILER

BY JOHN A. BIRNBAUM

The externally threaded end of an ordinary  $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch union is now slipped over the end of the coil which is peened over, say about  $\frac{3}{16}$  inch, forming a flange which serves to connect the copper tube and iron pipe with the ordinary union. (See Fig. 4). This

The diagrams illustrate the mechanical components of the machine. Fig. 1 shows the machine in a retracted position, with the horizontal beam and its supporting structure. Fig. 2 shows the machine in an extended position, where the horizontal beam is moved forward, likely to engage with the cable or wire being tested.

**SIDE AND PLAN VIEWS OF RIG FOR CUTTING A CONCAVE SURFACE**

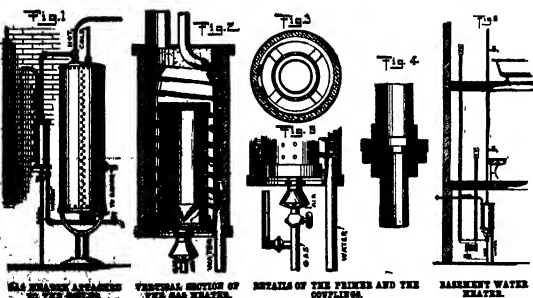
Fig. 6 shows a system in which the heater proper is located in the basement and the supply pipe, instead of being connected to the boiler or storage tank, is controlled independently from each floor. The heater is equipped with an electric self-lighting apparatus, such as may be purchased in the market, and an ordinary "off and on" push button is placed at each floor, near, or it may be connected to the water faucet. The apparatus is quite simple, it is only necessary to push a button, which will ignite the gas in the heater, and then open the faucet. The cold water in the pipe will run out, of course, before the hot water

TURNING CONCAVE AND CONVEX SURFACES

BY H. B. HENNINGSEN

LATHE RIGGED TO TURN A CONVEYER

**Fig 1** and **2** show front and plan views respectively of the concave attachment. The radius block **4** is bolted to make a close fit on the nose of the tall-stock attachment **1**. The bolt holes in the radius block are for binding the block securely in place. It will be observed that the block is split where the ligatures **5** are attached. This is done so that the radius block can be now finished on the inside and the holes for the pin or bolt **4** are drilled. Care should be used to get these holes directly in line with those on the other side. The bolt holes should be in a straight way or the other may be of no account, but it is. A good mechanic always adheres to the rule "Anything worth doing is worth doing well." The blocks **6** are bolted to the radius block and are used to draw the radius block to the side. As the part of various kinds of lathe designs it is impossible to give a form of block to suit but the accuracy of this depends wholly the accuracy of the curve of the radius block. The blocks **6** are bolted to the line with the center, in which position it is set before starting to cut. The tall stock is now clamped in position, while the lathe carriage should be free to move. The carriage is then drawn back to the center and the carriage is drawn toward the operator the carriage will be drawn back, causing the cutting tool to describe an arc the radius of which is the radius of the radius block. The centers of the holes in the radius block. The tool is then to the work by turning the hand wheel of the tall stock screw, while the cross feed is accomplished in the

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**GAS HEATER ATTACHED TO THE HOUSE**      **VERTICAL SECTION OF THE GAS HEATER**

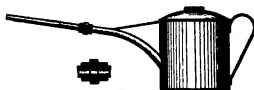
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makes its appearance. The temperature of the water can be regulated by the faucet. That is to say, the greater the heat desired, the smaller should be quantity allowed to run through the faucet, and vice versa. When no more hot water is wanted the other handle is pushed, which cuts off the gas and puts out the fire in the heater, and the faucet is closed. This operation may be repeated any time hot water is wanted. If cold water is wanted, it is only necessary to turn on the faucet, without starting the fire. Thus hot or cold water may be drawn from the same faucet.

to state that in order to avoid resetting, it is a good plan to have the blank which is to be machined cast with a convex face of about the same curve as it should be when finished. If this is not done or we wish to use flat disks of cold-rolled steel or other material, it will be necessary to move the cutting tool forward after each cut.

#### A SAFETY OIL GAN

When oiling electrical machinery, it is always advisable to safeguard yourself against accidental shock, especially when currents of high tension are being



OIL GAN WITH INSULATED TIP

generated. It frequently happens when an ordinary lamp-joint can is employed for oiling dynamos that a severe shock is received by the oiler, resulting sometimes in death. It would seem, says the writer, to invent an oil can that was perfectly safe under all ordinary conditions of use. Owing to the extreme simplicity of the design any one possessing ordinary mechanical ability can convert an ordinary oiler either of the vertical or horizontal kind, into a safety oiler. Cut the spout in the middle and solder upon each end a piece of heavy tubing having either an external or internal thread cut. Fit through a coupling sleeve made of insulating material as shown in the sectional view. The insulator can be made out of either hard rubber or vulcanized fiber turned in the lathe, with a milled center to admit of a firm grip when screwing or unscrewing the parts. Since oil is an insulator, no current can get past the coupling sleeve to the oiler's hand.

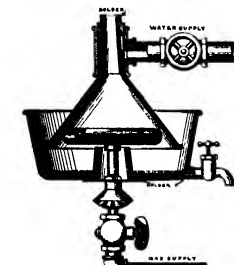
#### INSTANTANEOUS WATER HEATER.

BY GEORGE H. KELL.

The old proverb, "A watched pot never boils," does not apply to the water heater shown in the accompanying illustration because hot or even boiling water can be drawn from it the instant it is put into operation. It is made from an ordinary copper funnel and a cake tin.

The copper funnel should preferably be fitted on the outside. To the water supply pipe is attached a valve for the regulation of the flow of water. To this valve is fitted a short nipple and an ordinary tee fitting. One end of the arm of the tee is fitted with an ordinary plug which is bored and reamed out to fit the small end of the funnel and the end of same is turned over with a small hammer and soldered to the plug. The other end of the tee is fitted to fit very closely to the outside of the funnel, leaving, however, a slight annular opening which may be regulated by riving the plug in or out, so that when the water is turned on it will flow in an even thin sheet over the funnel.

Inside the funnel is an ordinary gas burner, and



HOM-MADE INSTANTANEOUS WATER HEATER.

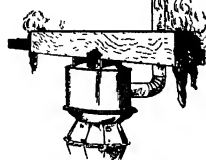
as may be purchased for ten cents. This burner is connected to the gas supply in the usual manner. It will be noticed by referring to the illustration that the funnel is in an inverted position. The lower part of the funnel is surrounded by an ordinary cake mold, with the inside cone partly cut out. This tin forms a basin for the hot water which may be drawn off with an ordinary faucet soldered to the cake tin, or it may be run off as the water boils. It will now be seen

that when the gas is lighted the funnel becomes hot at once, and when the water is turned on it is forced through the narrow opening between the tee and the funnel in a uniform thin sheet which spreads over the funnel and becomes hot as it flows down. Almost any degree of heat may be obtained by regulating the flow of water with the valve. The spent gas from the gas burner passes up through the funnel and out to the atmosphere. Some arrangement may be made to connect the water and gas valves so that they will be turned on simultaneously, thus obviating the danger of overheating the funnel.

#### STEAM BOXES FOR BOAT BUILDING.

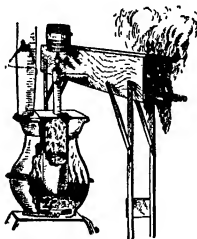
BY A. P. KENNEDY.

A simple method of fitting a steam box for boat work is as follows: Take a common wash boiler, put a 1½ inch hole in the cover to receive a short piece of tubing 2 or 3 inches long, which should be soldered. The steam box is made of wood, of any length desired, and about 10 inches high by 8 inches wide inside. Make a couple of blocks hollowed out to fit the top of boiler cover, and nail them to the box. Cut a round



STEAM BOX CONNECTED TO A WASH BOILER.

hole in the bottom of the box to receive the tubing that has been placed in the cover of the boiler. Be careful not to allow the tubing to project inside the box. The ends of the box are generally stopped up with old rags. In operation put on about a halfpint of water in the boiler. Fit the cover on, and then lift the



STEAM BOX CONNECTED TO A CAST-IRON MUFFLER.

steam box and place it on top of the cover, allowing the tubing to enter the bottom of the box.

Another method of constructing a steam box has been devised by William Ellis, a boat builder. It is made by taking a cast iron muffler, plugging the lower end, and connecting a short length of 1½ inch pipe to the opposite end. A tee is put on the end of the pipe with a short piece of 1½ inch pipe screwed into the tee at right angle to the muffler piece. The upper end of the tee is plugged up with a wooden plug. If there is no reducer handy

Bore a hole in the wooden plug, and screw into it a short piece of ¼ inch pipe, fitted with a stop cock of some sort. Above the stop cock place a can or wooden paint pail, which is quite easily attached by simply boring a hole in the bottom and screwing to the short nipple above the stop cock. In operation, the muffler is placed in the stove with a coal or wood fire. A piece of sheet iron with a hole through which the pipe projects, serves as a cover for the stove. Water is poured into the paint pail and allowed to run down into the muffler as desired. A wooden steam box mounted on legs is connected to the muffler by the 1½ inch pipe. This style of boiler is not injured if it boils dry, and is frequently red hot when the water is put in. This, of course, makes it "fussy," but otherwise no harm is done, as the use of sufficient size to handle all the steam that is generated.

#### MAKING HONEY DIPS IN BOAT SHEETS.

A good sheet is never covered in 10 seconds, and the elements may dry any other part of the boat. The hot sunbaker may be drying it up half the time, while during the other half, it may be covered with rain, dew, or salt water. And at this season the safety of boat builders with the seams, which does not make



MAKING TIGHT JOINTS IN BOAT DECKS.

as pretty a deck as a tight seam, made in the following manner:

Have the wood thoroughly seasoned and make a nice fitting joint for the deck plank that you are laying next to the plank already in. When this is done, take the place out and with a smooth steel rod or burnisher of some kind, burnish down, with quite a pressure, the corner of the joined edge, as in Fig. 2 of the accompanying drawing. This of course compresses the wood. Now plane the wood down on the joined edge, making a true corner again. This is now ready to fasten on the deck carlines. Proceed in like manner with the rest of the deck planks. The joints on a wooden tank or vat can be made tight by the same principle. Instead of burnishing the corner a round rod is laid in the center of the jointed piece and with a hammer is forced nearly half its diameter in the wood (see Fig. 3). This is placed down until there is no groove left, each joint is treated in the same way. When the work is completed, the part that has been compressed by the round rod will expand. This produces a very tight joint.

#### TO PREVENT OBSTRUCTION OF THE FEED PIPE IN AUTOMOBILES.

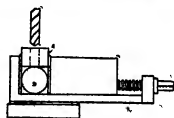
BY J. J. WATSON.

Among the worst and most costly troubles of the amateur motorist are those connected with the piston, and if he is unable to discover the cause of the disorder he may have to pay heavily for curing it, which could be avoided by observing the following simple precaution.

Recently when my engine failed to work properly I determined to look into the matter myself, and started by removing the cylinder heads. I discovered small particles of metal around the edge of the cylinders and the cylinders themselves were scratched up. Tracing this to its cause I discovered that the feed pipe was almost clogged up with small particles of corroded copper. Going further, my gasoline tank showed signs of corrosion which I attribute to poor gasoline, containing considerable moisture, thereby causing corrosion of the copper tank. After giving my tank a thorough washing and scraping I had it electroplated inside with a coating of tin. All particles of metal were removed from the cylinder, the feed pipe was cleaned out, and the parts were connected up. I have been running my motor for the past eight months without the trouble recurring, and have saved myself the cost of a new tank.

#### HOW TO DRILL A HOLE CENTRAL IN A BAR.

It is a rather difficult matter to drill a hole in a bar and keep the hole central. The accompanying drawing shows a practical hint. A piece of tool steel



METHOD OF DRILLING A HOLE CENTRAL IN A BAR.

A is caught in the lathe chuck, and is turned and bored so the hole will run true with the outside diameter. The outside diameter is turned to the exact size of bar B, which is to be drilled. The bar B is placed in a vice as shown, the drill Fig. A is placed on top of the job, and the vice is then tightened up. As the jig and the bar are of the same diameter, the hole in the bar runs both very rapidly with the bar is being bored.



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# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

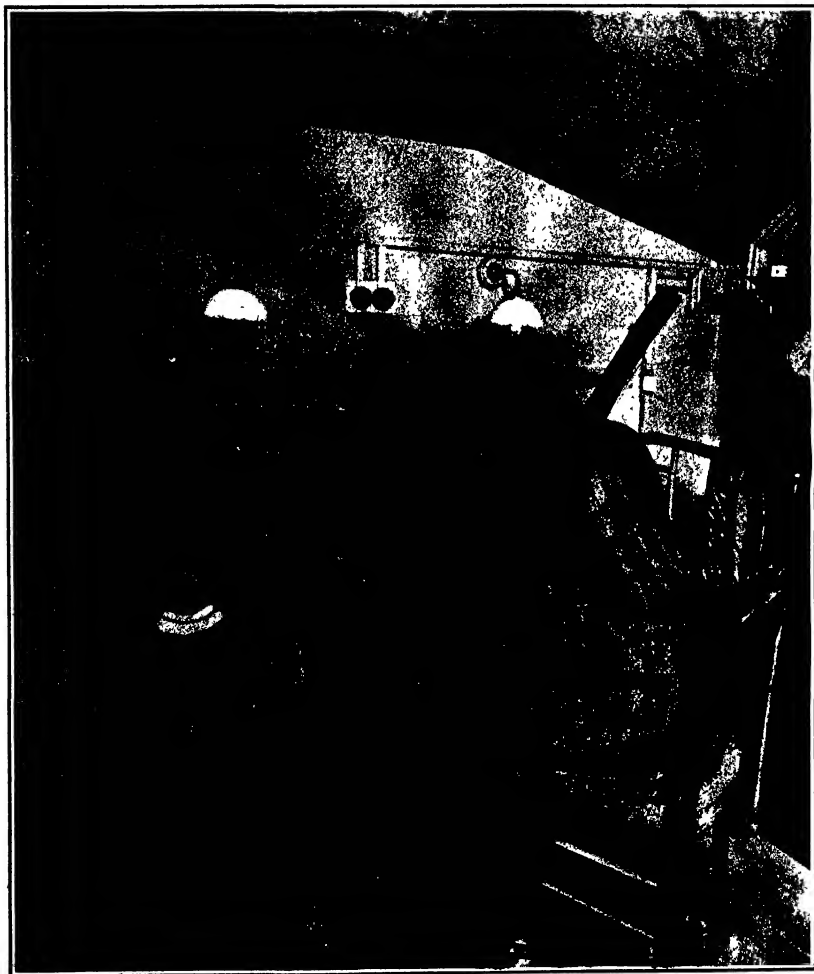
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MEASURING THE TEMPERATURE OF A STAR.—[See page 501.]







## A NEW SYSTEM OF COLOR PHOTOGRAPHY

Since the introduction of the Lumiere autochrome positive-plate within the last three years, upon which a composite color picture is made at one operation direct in the camera, quite an impetus has been given to improvements in this line, which will overcome one of the drawbacks of the French process, that is, the difficulty of securing duplicate color photographs except by successive exposures in the camera.

The new system we are about to describe has this particular feature, that duplicate color pictures can be obtained at pleasure from the first negative taken in the camera. It has been perfected and simplified by Mr. Frederick H. Ives of this city and is quite unique in the way certain apparent difficulties are overcome.

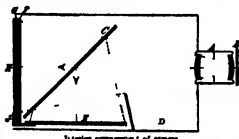
The process is based on the merging of the three primary colors, red, blue, and green. It is not quite so simple in operation as the autochrome process, but possesses the following definite advantages over that. The sensitive plates used keep better developing successfully when several months old and cost but half as much as the autochrome plates. The positive transparencies are made by a separate process from the finished negatives, thus permitting the making of any number of duplicates. The transparencies transmit many times as much light as autochromes and are quite free from granularity so that they are perfectly adapted for use along with ordinary lantern slides in the lantern also for use in the stereoscope. The process also permits of local treatment to modify the colors when and where desired with extraordinary facility a feature which will be greatly appreciated by the artistic amateur.

A special camera is required to make the triple negative, but it is very simple and can be used without change for all ordinary kinds of photography with plates or film.

When it is desired to make a set of triple negatives for color photography a trichromatic plate pack consisting of three sensitized plates held together as one is used in the special plate holder instead of a single plate and is so disposed in the camera after the plate holder has been inserted as to produce by one exposure three negatives representing the three primary colors. The plate pack consists of a red sensitive and a green sensitive plate with the sensitive or film surfaces in contact held between a backing card and a blue-sensitive plate which is hinged thereto by a strip of gummed paper. When the pack is inserted in the plate holder the red and green-sensitive plates are retained by ledges and are pressed in close contact film against film by a spring on the lid but the blue-sensitive plate is made slightly shorter so that it falls or passes outward between the ledges. When the opaque side of the plate holder is withdrawn in preparing for an exposure this plate falls outward into the camera, resting on the bottom of the latter in a horizontal position at right angles to the other plates. After this a yellow screen plate is dropped down from the camera roof by means of a lever on the exterior as shown in the diagram and the usual compensating screen is placed over the lens tube. Then the exposure is made by means of the lens shutter which is

said to be about as long as that required for an autochrome plate.

Referring to the diagram, A is the lens having a compensating screen P attached to it, which equalizes the exposure for the three images and perfects the color selection. C is a hinged transparent



The interior arrangement of camera.



The camera, plate holder and carrying case.

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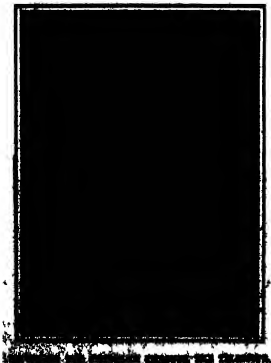
The appearance of the camera and plate holder and the glass for carrying the apparatus is shown in the accompanying illustration. It is quite compact and simple. The negatives of these pictures both in the form of lantern slides and stereoscopic transparencies have been shown and they possess a most pleasing brilliancy and transparency in coloring just as one would like to see.

It should be mentioned that Mr. Ives' system succeeded in developing and printing half tone and half tone regarded as one of the pioneers in color photography. From some of these discoveries was awarded the Progress medal of the Royal Photographic Society of Great Britain the Elliott (see the Journal of the Franklin Institute and the April 1901 issue of the International Society of Pictorialists).

We are informed that a company in this city under the style of Ives Inventions is soon to introduce this latest system which seems to be of a very practical character.

## WIRELESS TIME SIGNALING TO SEA FROM THE EIFFEL TOWER

BY F. HONORE



The wireless telegraphic station of the Eiffel Tower is now signaling Paris Observatory time to all vessels within a radius of 1800 miles. The present station is using 15 to 16 horse-power. When the new installation whose completion was delayed by the recent floods is finished 100 horse-power will be at the disposal of the engineers and the range will be doubled.

A master clock which has long been used for the correction of marine chronometers is set up in a room of the observatory side by side with blocks that telegraph mean time to various centers in Paris and sidereal clocks which serve to regulate the mean time. The master clock in question itself indicates mean time with reference to the meridian of Paris. Enclosed in a glass case and suspended from a wall so thick that vibrations in masonry and variations in temperature cannot affect the mechanism it is corrected each day if necessary by means of a magnetic regulator. The rod of the pendulum carries a magnet the lower end of which is spaced a few millimeters from a solenoid. Depending upon the direction of the current which is sent through the solenoid, the magnet is attracted or repelled thus retarding or accelerating the beat of the pendulum. In this manner a loss or gain is regulated in thirty-six minutes.

The clock is connected by wire with the key of the wireless station of the Eiffel Tower. At midnight, at 12:00, and at 12:34, the clockwork automatically



CLOCK WHICH AUTOMATICALLY TEMPERATES TIME.







## A GARDEN OF FUNGI.

BY JACQUES BOYER.

The Mycothèque annexed to the laboratory of cryptogamy of the Paris school of pharmacy is unquestionably the most original garden in the world. It contains living specimens of 107 species of molds and allied fungi which M. Baisier has patiently collected, separated and cultivated on an appropriate medium.

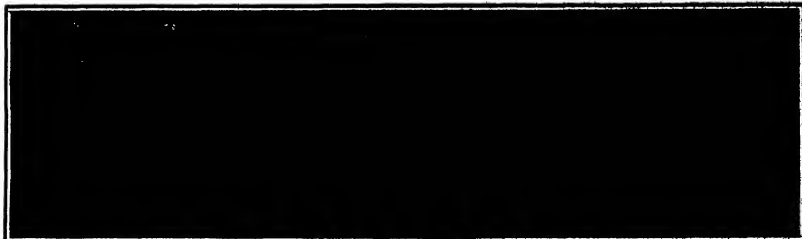
The fungi are sown or planted on pieces of floristic root in bottles of Bohemian glass about 3 inches in diameter and 4 inches high. The mouth of the bottle is closed with a plug of cotton wool. A glass rod the top of which is enlarged to form a cup in which the pieces of floristic root are placed passes through an India rubber stopper which is fitted to a hole in the bottom of the bottle. The miniature greenhouse rests on a base of wood or porcelain.

filaments of *Penicillium* at first simple and later branched and resembling a brush bear chains of green, gray, yellow or rose-colored spores. Minute drops of water often condense on the brush of *Penicillium cleoformis* producing a very beautiful effect.

In order to obtain a pure and isolated species in each bottle interlopers of other species are carefully removed and the bottle if necessary is replanted two or three times. The principal function of the collection is to supply the laboratory with living specimens of assured purity of type for use in research and in the illustration of lectures.

The position of the curator is no sinecure. When the nutrient material has been exhausted the fungus will perish unless special methods of preserving its life are adopted. M. Baisier having learned by experience

number of European species, which Kewpie passed the two-fold power of transforming starch into glucose and of converting glucose into alcohol and carbon dioxide. Among these species is *Aspergillus niger*, which is frequently seen growing on decaying vegetable matter. *Phanerochaete splendens* exhibits delicate filaments terminating in little balls. An allied species, *P. stroma*, is employed to heighten the brilliancy of carmine by consuming the fatty ingredients of cochineal. The single genus *Penicillium* is represented by 17 species. *P. glaucum* is the common green mold which attacks bread, fruit and other articles of food. Various sorts of cheese owe their characteristic flavors to species of *Penicillium*. *Trichia* and *Aspergillus* to *P. candidum* and *P. albus*, and *Aspergillus* to *P. viridescens* which develops inside the cheese and pro-



*Penicillium cleoformis*

*Trichia stroma* on bottom of little chamber

*Phanerochaete splendens*

*Aspergillus niger*

*Aspergillus stroma*

*Aspergillus stroma*

*Aspergillus stroma*

The floristic roots are deprived of their cork-like bark in order to lay bare the yellow alburnum or saw wood which is filled with glycerine, a saccharine substance which is very favorable to the development of mold fungi.

Before the mold spores are sown the bottles containing the pieces of floristic root are sterilized by heating them to 248 deg. F. for one hour in an autoclave.

One of the accompanying photographs shows M. Baisier sowing the spores by removing the cotton plug and depositing a few spores on the floristic root by means of a platinum wire sheathed in a glass rod. The platinum wire is sterilized by passing it through the flame of a Bunsen burner before it is dipped into the mold culture and the cotton plug is instantly replaced after the sowing. The bottle is then placed in one of the cases in the Mycothèque where the mycelium of the fungus rapidly permeates the floristic root which becomes covered with a growth which varies greatly in appearance according to the species. *Hyphophastrum* develops a dense mass of long grayish hairs. *Trichia felina* resembles a shrub with many branches and *Aspergillus niger* presents the appearance of a white felt hat. The reproductive

## FABA.

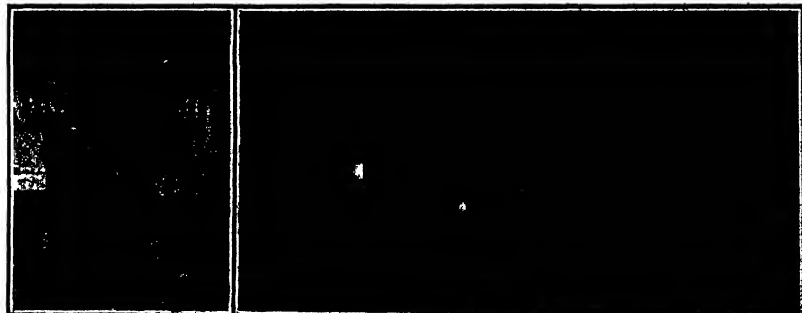
spores of each genus, arranged in a weak one or two of cryptogams, retain their while others die. There has led to a finished description of the fact that the separated from the organs of one

duces the characteristic green veins.

The genus *Aspergillus* is represented by 6 species. *A. niger* is used in Japan in the fermentation of the national beverage sake or rice beer. *A. fumigatus* attacks the mucous surfaces of the respiratory organs of birds and produces a pseudo-tuberculosis in pigeons fattened by the cramming process. There are 16 species of *Aspergillus* including the celebrated *A. niger* (also called *Aspergillus niger*) which was studied so minutely by Baillie.

The collection also contains various fungi which are parasitic upon insects including *Cordyceps* which is fatal caterpillars and *Botrytis* of which one species causes the muscardine disease of silkworms and others have been employed to destroy May beetles and locusts.

Alfred M. Angot, director of the meteorological service of France, has reported to the Academy of Sciences that no exceptional variations in terrestrial magnetism or atmospheric electricity were observed in the neighborhood of Paris during the night of May 12th 19th when Halley's comet was in transit. The meteorological observations also failed to indicate any disturbances that could be attributed to the comet.



Sterilizing the bottles.

Planting the fungi.

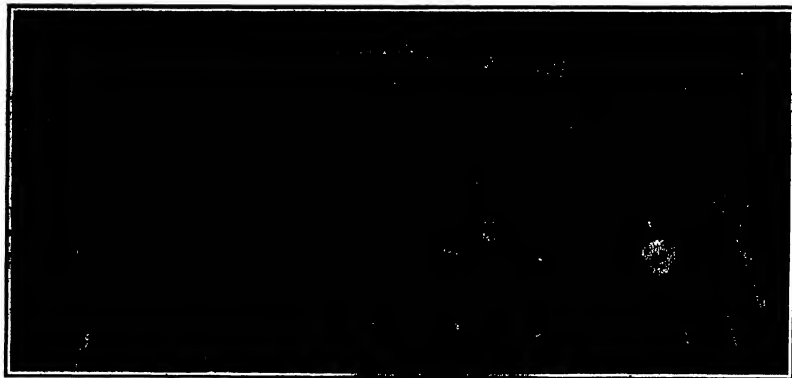
## THE TEMPERATURE OF THE STARS

BY JOSEPH BARTON

By means of his heterochrome stellar photometer M. Charles Nordmann has succeeded in obtaining in addition to other interesting results measurements of the effective temperatures of certain stars. The apparatus consists of a lateral attachment to the eyepiece of an equatorial telescope and like the Eolmer photometer it allows the focal image of the star to be placed in juxtaposition to that of an artificial

circular aperture the light of an Osram metallic filament lamp of four volts and one ampere. This little lamp is operated by storage batteries and regulated by means of a rheostat and an accurate voltmeter. There is no difficulty in maintaining the difference of potential between the lamp terminals constant to within 1/100 volt by adjusting the rheostat once or twice per hour. This corresponds to an in-

various temperatures between 2500 deg F and 6000 deg F these temperatures being measured with the Fény prismometer. The first determinations made with the small horizontal equatorial of the observatory of Paris and the photometer described above showed that this method of monochromatic images gives in a simple manner the measurements and ratios of the total luminosity of stars free from the



Nordmann's heterochrome stellar photometer (shown as it appears in the Paris Observatory)

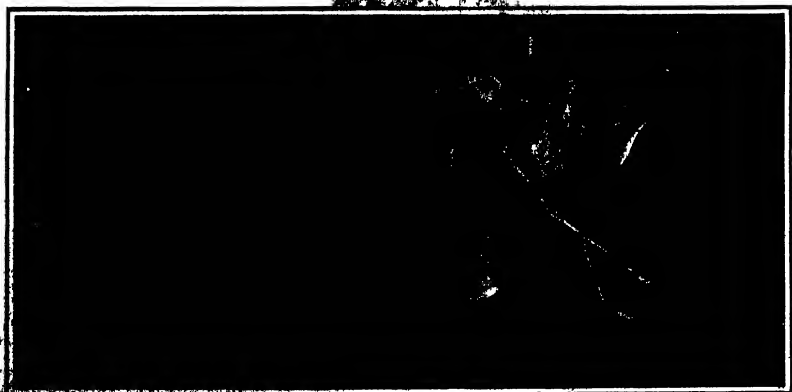
star. This part of the apparatus contains two Nicol prisms, the third Nicol and the quartz plate of Zollner's photometer being suppressed. Furthermore, between the focus and the eyepiece in the common path of the rays of the real and the artificial star is placed a sliding drum which carries interchangeable cells filled with colored liquids. In this manner a series of monochromatic images of the real and artificial stars can be produced. The photometric measurement is made by rendering the images of the two stars equally bright by turning the two Nicol prisms which are interposed in the path of the rays from the artificial star and are provided with graduated circles.

The artificial star which performs the function of a secondary standard is obtained by converging upon a

appreciable distance the light of an Osram metallic filament lamp of four volts and one ampere. This little lamp is operated by storage batteries and regulated by means of a rheostat and an accurate voltmeter. There is no difficulty in maintaining the difference of potential between the lamp terminals constant to within 1/100 volt by adjusting the rheostat once or twice per hour. This corresponds to an in-

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Standardizing the photometer with the aid of an electric furnace.

THE TEMPERATURE OF THE STARS

## The Flights of Rolls, De Lesseps, and Curtiss Compared

BY CARL DIENSTBACH

The "heavier-than-air machine" during the past few weeks has proved nearly as useful as the large modern airship, that has astonished. When Blériot first flew across the English Channel, aeroplane traffic seemed near. But as nobody, not even his rivals in that attempt, repeated the feat, his performance gradually lost its convincing quality. In our many his feat was dubbed a "mere piece of good luck." When, however, during the last few weeks, the Chan- nel was not only crossed again on a Blériot machine, but in quick succession the whole navigable length

of the Hudson was covered in a splendid high-speed flight, and when on the heels of that triumph the "Channel" was crossed and re-crossed in a single flight, everyone realized that the aeroplane had entered upon a wider field of usefulness and that it was indeed a vehicle which is destined to be the pleasure conveyance of the future. The three flights mentioned were all over established routes of the liveliest traffic. They all required a machine which would not fail, under penalty of falling into the water, and they were all between rocks or precipitous mountain sides, which made it a problem to land in case of emergency, and which influenced the air currents in a way as yet so little known that even a seaphy might become formidable. That they were successfully accomplished by machines of so widely different types as the Blériot monoplane and the Curtiss and Wright biplanes shows to what extent the technique of flying machines construction has advanced within the last year. They especially emphasize the immense progress that has been made with regard to the heart of an aeroplane—the motor.

It seems now certain that the aeroplane motor will merely repeat the history of the automobile engine. It offers certainly a more formidable problem, but it seems now assured that the continuous falling of the early eight-motors was due less to the inherent difficulties under which they had to work—running almost continuously at top-load—than to inexperience of the makers. It should be pointed out that the Curtiss and a Blériot machine alike flew with half the power with which they were provided for these trials. They were not larger than the standard type but De Lesseps had a 50 horse-power or Omome motor in place of the 24 horse-power Anzani with which Blériot flew across, and Curtiss also a 50 horse-power eight-cylinder motor against the usual 20 horse-power four-cylinder engine of a Curtiss biplane. Capt. Rolls had made no attempt to double the motive power of his Wright machine, but as he was flying alone he had considerable reserve force at his disposal. These were all machines capable of carrying a passenger, but flying with only the pilot aboard. Consequently the motors were not running continuously under top-load any more than automobile motors. Count de Lesseps used his power sparingly. He made it little better time than Blériot. Even Curtiss, who was beating the "Twentieth Century Limited," says he barely opened the throttle wide.

There is another feature common to these flights, to which their success must be ascribed just as much as to more reliable motive power. It is the evolution of high flying. For trials of this nature a great elevation has the very obvious advantage of easy re-landing. The Lesseps flew in a fog, yet, in contrast to Blériot, he was almost always in sight of land, at an altitude of a thousand feet, as compared with Blériot's 300. From the same superior level Curtiss saw the scenery spread below him like a chart. He could make short cuts, pick his landings, and easily decide where best to lay his course. Flying high greatly simplifies the pilot's task, where low flying would add to the diffi-

culties of balancing, the difficulty of following a more or less circuitous course while dodging obstacles. It means something like the strain on a bicyclist's rider, who with his eyes fixed to a country road, tries unconsciously to pick out a path. Though a flying pilot does not fear actual contact with objects below there still remains the need of allowing for heavy in mass of wind gusts, irregularities of the motor or swaying the machine. The principal advantage of being able to go high is, however, in the increased "range" it gives in dominating the air itself.

these studies. Curtiss, flying alone, a few feet above water, with a strong breeze, but much wider in the higher part and somewhat irregularly, was surrounded by grouped hills, densely wooded, widely scattered to the very opposite maneuvers of dominating the surface of the water. He had no doubt learned this trick while flying above Lake Koshka. The Hudson is broader than the "American Rhine," but the long narrow valley of Lake Koshka reminds one of the German Rhine still spots strongly with its long rows of vineyards along its steep sides, and the massive masonry of the bridges and toll-gates regularly repeating the figure of old castles. If weather conditions are similar to those of the bright Sunday when Curtiss sailed his week-making flight to New York, the greatest safety from this air's billows is indeed found next to the breeze in such a river valley.

As a few of Blériot's flighters' flight resembled De Lesseps's and Rolls's journeys across the sea, he had to deal with much more varied conditions of the air, just as changing as the topography of the landscape over which he was passing. It is not surprising that on his long trip he encountered the full bear of the aeroplane, descending currents, that was more familiar to aviators in the old days of the Lilienthal and Chanute flying gliding machines when the wind was rather sought than avoided. During the past few years of the power-driven machine for good reason the reverse condition has been sought. Gliding in a sea is so uninteresting, the machine in descent almost seems to have the power of power, that Lilienthal, Piggott, Herring, and Avery gladly preferred to risk the gusts instead. Curtiss only retains what Herring fourteen years ago so eloquently described, when he refers to a feeling at the pit of the stomach like that caused by a quick starting elevator and to lightning changes in the level of flight of twenty to forty feet.

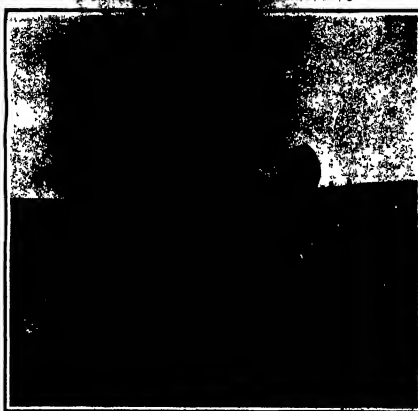
Curtiss' ingenious use of the horizontal rudder in meeting these disturbances by a "homoeopathic remedy," i. e., checking the descent by steering down and gaining speed, shows his great aptitude for aeroplaning. In an interview with the author the Wright brothers in fact remarked as early as 1904 that to go up, it was at times necessary to steer down, but they did not publish such tricks of their trade. Modern aviators are really covering for themselves many a secret of the early "Glaucus." Thus Mr. Curtiss is planning now to add a device which gives him a firm hold on the machine at times when under the impulses of "Glaucus" air it is slipping faster away under him than gravity can pull his own body, while in the original design of the same machine by Herring the machine of the Curtiss was pushed into the air by a device which it is at the time just as likely to be the first.

Herring glides, as admitted from Lilienthal, under the same conditions, taken over on his first flight, the adaptation and flying device was the original design of the Curtiss machine.

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Rolls in his Wright biplane flying across the Channel.



De Lesseps in his Blériot monoplane flying across the Channel.

THE SECOND AND THIRD AEROPLANES TO FLY ACROSS THE ENGLISH CHANNEL.

Aristotle are fast realizing that it is better to counteract aerobically than to fight them. This tendency to prevent them from following any route that approached the confined character of a roadway. The really favorable lanes of flight may be found only if the pilot is unfettered, can pick his path at any turn up to 1000 feet or more. The importance of flying over water across the Channel was understood in Lesseps' time by Blériot, who ran into an aerial machine, flying to land. De Lesseps and Wright, who flew over land, crossed the very edge of the storm.

When this trap, escaped all danger of being caught in the violent air-currents that burst upon him, he was able to pick his path at any turn up to 1000 feet or more. The importance of flying over water across the Channel was understood in Lesseps' time by Blériot, who ran into an aerial machine, flying to land. De Lesseps and Wright, who flew over land, crossed the very edge of the storm.



As customers also force the growth by covering the beds with glass. This is rather a cumbersome process, as it involves the construction of frames over the plants, which must be dismantled before they can be removed to a new location. Furthermore, the heating device that is sometimes employed must be moved as well, which is rather an expensive operation. An improvement on these conditions has been suggested recently. It consists in the use of a portable greenhouse and a separate portable heating plant, which may be connected to the heating pipes of the greenhouse. The greenhouse is moved on wheels, which travel on tracks or ways. The ways are temporarily laid when moving the greenhouses from one place to another.

Two interesting patents on drinking cups have recently been issued. One of them provides a folding-pocket drinking cup, which consists of a piece of flexible waterproof material folded upon itself to form a cup without any seams through which water may leak. The material is folded in a trip of folds so that it may be collapsed to form a flat package, so that it can be placed conveniently in the vest pocket. The other cup referred to is adapted particularly for use at soda fountains and public dispensaries of beverages. It is made of a single piece of material, and is formed in an overlapped joint. The bottom of the cup is made out of a star-shaped blank, the points of which are folded up on the sides of the cup, and serve not only to attach the bottom to the cup, but to reinforce it. The cup is made of tapering form to permit of holding.

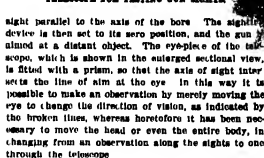
Mr Dexter M Rogers, of Boston, Mass., has dedicated to the public an insect-destroying bomb, upon which he has just secured a patent. The bomb contains dry powder in powdered form, which is released in a cloud when the bomb is thrown to a certain height after being discharged from a gun. The poisonous powder is thus distributed in the air, and gradually settles down on the leaves of the trees which are infested with the insects. This method of treating the trees possesses the advantage that the powder will reach all parts of the foliage, and is applied with a great saving of time and labor.

## PATENTED ADDITIONS

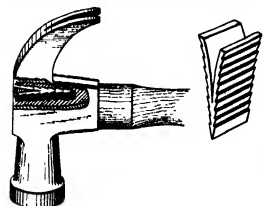
**GUN BORE SIGHTING TELESCOPE.**—A rather ingenious method of sighting the sights of a gun has recently been patented by a German inventor. It consists in placing the telescope in the bore of the gun, with its line



TELESCOPE FOR WATCHING GUN SIGHTS



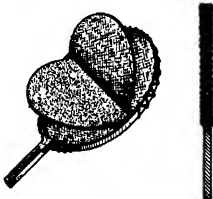
**RESILIENT WEDGE FOR TOOL HANDLES**—An inventor in New Mexico has recently hit upon the ingenious scheme of using a resilient wedge for fastening the



**RESILIENT WEDGES FOR FASTENING TOOL HEADS.**

heads of tools upon the handles, the advantage of this being that when the wood is compressed through the use of the tool, the wedge will expand, and thus automatically tighten the handle. The wedge as illustrated herewith is split, and is provided on opposite

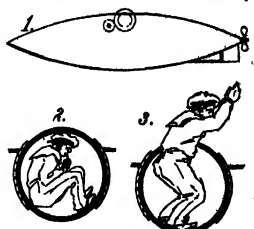
**AIR-COOLING FAN**—It is well known that the circulation of air increases the rate of evaporation, and thus cools a moist body. It is for this reason that we use a fan to produce an artificial draught of air over the



### SELF-COOLING FAN

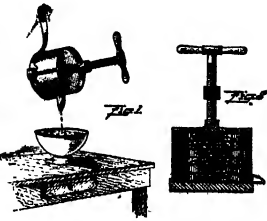
face and absorb moisture from the skin. An inventor has recently hit upon the idea of improving the efficiency of the fan by providing it with a moist pad, so that the evaporation will cool the fan. The fan is made up of a rattan frame, as shown in the accompanying drawing, which is covered with two layers of cloth, between which is a layer of felt. The outer layers may be removed to permit of taking out the felt layer to replace it. Undoubtedly, when the fan is operated it will grow colder, by reason of the evaporation of moisture from the felt. It is a question, however, whether the added moisture in the air absorbed by the face will do more harm than good.

—It is  
and drier  
must fre-  
produce  
the accom-



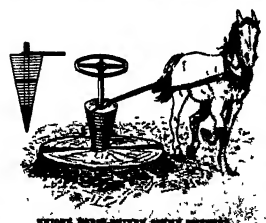
### LIVE-SAVING HATCH FOR SUBMARINE BOATS

which would brown the crew before they could escape. An inventor has recently hit upon an idea, borrowed possibly from the revolving doors that are used in public buildings, whereby the crew can escape, one at a time, without admitting more than a small amount of air into the vessel. The escape hatch, in this case a cylindrical hatch is used, provided with an opening at one side. The hatch is mounted in water-tight bearings, and is connected by means of suitable gearing with a driving shaft, which is turned by the crew. The hatch is opened by manual communication with the interior of the vessel, and then with the water outside. To escape from the vessel, a man crawls into the hatch, as indicated in Fig. 2, and then it is turned around to the position shown in Fig. 3, thus enabling him to dive upward through the water and escape.



**DEPOSED: MARTIN LUTHER KING, JR.**

expressing the juice of a large amount of beef at a time. The press is similar to the ordinary type, being formed of a suitable receptacle with a plunger, which is forced down by a hand screw. Instead of operating the plunger the meaty pieces of beef, the device is arranged to take a number of layers of beef, which are separated by slices of corrugated and perforated metal, so shown in the cross section view, Fig. 2. The press is provided with a support of one piece, through which the juice of animals are sent to a tank below. After the material has been pressed, the juice will run down the tank, and the solid material will be pressed down to the bottom of the tank.



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By JONATHAN Z. WOODWORTH

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## Modern Plumbing Illustrated

[illegible][illegible]

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**A TELEPHONIC STETHOSCOPE.**  
(Concluded from page 496.)

two diaphragms *A* and *D* In this manner all sound except that particularly desired is eliminated. Thus it is possible to hear only heart beats, or the distinctive sound characteristic of any other

With this instrument it is quite feasible for a physician to examine a patient stethoscopically from a distance over the ordinary telephone.

tratus with the telephone service in a manner it has been possible to hear the sound of heart beats at distances, and the supreme indication was when the stethoscope was placed on the heart of a patient in London, and the beats were heard by physicians in the lake district, a matter of 100 miles or so. This instrument is far more sensitive than the stethoscope ordinarily used, and if any noise is created in the

When the examination is completed, the tube *B* is removed, it is very distinctly and loudly heard at the receiving end. The patient is not aware of the discomforts of this as possible, the instrument is withdrawn and should be used in a quiet room. The tube *B* and the diaphragm *A* are removed and a funnel substituted, and the instrument will collect and intensify to an extreme degree the slightest sound, an ordinary conversation being converted into a deafening shout at the receiving end.

The instrument has also been adapted to other phases of work such as the electrophone and wireless telegraphy with similar success. In the former case when the receiver is connected to a trumpet the sounds are distributed throughout the room, while in connection with the telegraphy it has enabled imitations, which were so feeble as to be undetected, to be picked up, and distinctly read by the operator at some distance.

## Yale Supremacy

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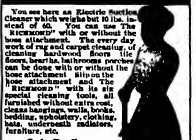
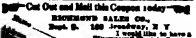
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
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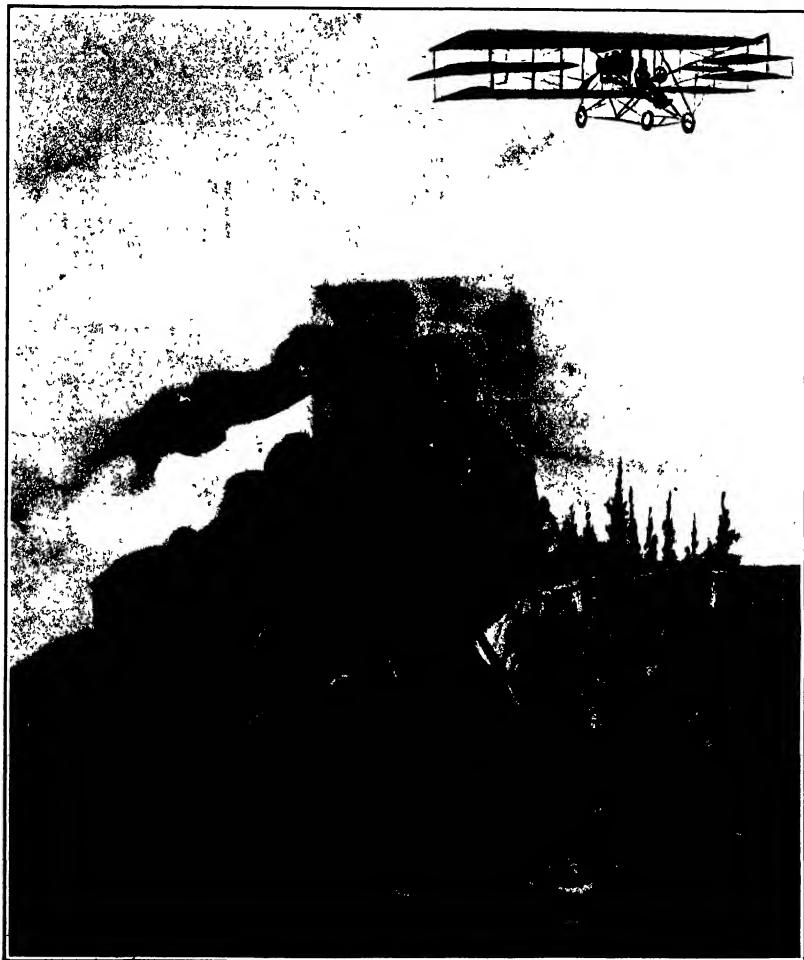
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Hamilton's biplane traveling above and beside the locomotive of the special train during his flight from New York to Philadelphia and return on June 19th.

THE LATEST FORM OF RACING.—[See page 521.]









# MODERN STEEL LOCK BAR PIPE CONSTRUCTION

BY FRANK C. PERKINS

In considering the use of steel pipe as compared with cast-iron pipe, it should be remembered that the value of water pipe depends on carrying capacity, strength and durability as well as cost. The accompanying illustration, Fig. 1, shows a 48-inch lock bar pipe lying in a trench at Philadelphia, Pa., while the details of construction are noted in Fig. 2. It is held that the cost is about 5 per cent more than riveted pipe, but it has greater strength and carrying capacity.

It may be stated that this capacity depends on friction, and riveted pipe presents an obstruction at every rivet and every circular and longitudinal seam.

It is also claimed that the uniform section of the lock bar pipe without any obstruction of any kind from end to end of each length of pipe, materially reduces friction. Some engineers say the carrying capacity of lock bar pipe is from 10 to 15 per cent greater than riveted pipe or is equal to well-coated, well-laid iron pipe.

Tests on 30-inch pipe at Lockport, N. Y., in 1906, showed a friction loss less than that given by Wat son's Tables for cast-iron pipe. It is well known that steel pipe is materially stronger than cast iron pipe. During a cloudburst in 1903, two 48-inch riveted steel pipe lines carrying 50,000,000 gallons per day for Newark, N. J., were undermined and left unsupported for four days for over 35 feet, and in addition to the weight of the pipe and the water passing through them (about 15 tons), there were some thirty uprooted trees piled up over the pipe which supported the immense weight and pressure, without damage.

It is conceded that cast iron is brittle and treacherous at best and though apparently sound one day, may prove defective the next, and break without a moment's notice.

It is of course true that the strength of any steel

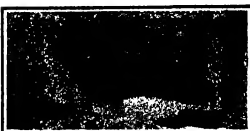


Fig. 2.—LOCK BAR STEEL PIPE, TAPER JOINT.



Fig. 1.—LOCK BAR PIPE IN TRENCH, DIAMETER 48 INCHES.

pipe is equal to the strength of the joints. Single riveted joints have an efficiency of about 55 per cent, double riveted joints about 65 per cent, triple riveted double, buttressed joints about 85 per cent, and welded joints about 90 per cent. Lock bar joints have an efficiency of 90 per cent, and have greater strength than plate themselves, as all tests result in a failure of the plate, without injury to the joints. A 48-inch diameter 7/16-inch plate lock bar pipe was tested to 1,060 pounds pressure, and the metal of the plate was stretched 4 1/2 inches with neither injury to the lock bar joint nor the least leakage along the same. Further pressure was impossible, because of the blowing out of the riveted reinforcing pads at the inlet and the gate.

It is maintained that lock bar pipe is from 30 to 50 per cent stronger than riveted pipe and 10 per cent stronger than welded pipe, and experience has shown that the natural life of steel pipe when properly made and laid is fully equal to that of cast-iron pipe.

Without doubt the life of all metal is less than it was twenty years ago, as nowadays electrolysis, sulphuric acid, galvanic action and other agents greatly accelerate corrosion. It is therefore most difficult to compare the life of pipe laid within the last twenty years and pipe laid prior to that time, because of these constantly increasing corrosive influences.

According to experiments on the reception of radio-telegraphic signals when transmitting with a spark gap in compressed air, as compared with signals received when an ordinary spark gap was used, there appears to be no advantage in using compressed air for this purpose. While the dielectric strength of the air is enormously increased, so also is the resistance to the oscillatory spark, both appearing to increase in direct proportion to the same ratio.

## THE WEARING QUALITY OF MANGANESE STEEL

Manganese steel is by no means a new material, but its application has been slow because of the difficulties which manifest themselves in giving it final form. It seems to have been discovered by Hadfield's Steel Foundry Company, Sheffield, England, some thirty or forty years ago, when seeking a hard and tough substitute for steel when used for castings. It was found that the mere increase of carbon in the steel did not have the desired effect. Steel having a carbon content as high as 1 per cent was unsuccessfully tried. It was known that when the manganese content of a steel somewhat exceeded 3.75 per cent, the alloy would be brittle. What was not known and what the Hadfield Company found out was that if the manganese were increased to a point ranging anywhere from 7 per cent to 30 per cent a steel might be produced which is remarkably strong and tough. Now this reversal of a leading property of an alloy by merely increasing the proportion of one of its constituents, as R. A. Hadfield pointed out, not with out precedent. In forming alloys of copper and tin, the resultant alloys seem to become harder and more brittle as the tin content rises from a low point up to a considerable percentage say 25 per cent, but when more tin is present than the soft and tough copper, the alloy becomes softer.

It was early found, however, that manganese steel was a very refractory metal to machine. The properties of hardness and toughness produced a combination that was very successful in resisting the cutting edge of the tool. And this characteristic is, even today, a bar to the application of this metal. We have high-speed steels capable of enormous performance when used against the pure carbon steels and cast iron. But manganese steels still hold out. Almost the only practicable thing to do is to use the grinder. Now the grinding machine is of late become a strong competitor of the ordinary machine tool. But its development has hardly been carried far enough to enable it to handle commercially the multiplicity of cutting operations necessary to enable manganese steel to have a general application to all the purposes for which it is highly adapted. Further, it has been found difficult to roll.

But so great are the intrinsic capabilities of this material for certain uses that it is one of the possibilities of giving it the desired form, it has been pretty rapidly acquiring friends. Consider, for example, the case of the Boston Elevated Railway Company. This corporation operates its transportation system on a

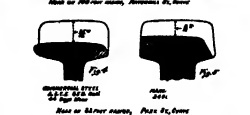


Diagram showing extraordinary wearing qualities of manganese steel rails.



This curve has the small radius of 50 feet.

THE PARK STREET STATION OF THE BOSTON ELEVATED RAILWAY ON WILKES STREET, NEAR OF RAILROAD STATION.

others have radii between 100 and 150 feet. Soon after operation began, there is change because of the wear with the feet that an enormous destruction of rails was taking place on the curves. This has been ascribed largely to the sharpness of the curves, and to the combination of grades and curves. It was on the curve of the Park Street south-bound track where the ordinary rail had a life of but about 44 days. The radius here is 53 feet. At the same locality, an open-hearth rail went out of service in even less time. At Adams Square, where there is a curve of 89 feet radius, a low-carbon Bessemer, an open hearth, and a high-carbon Bessemer rail were all tried. The last was the only one which had even a moderate life—10 1/2 months. Nickel steel was tried on a 100-foot curve at Haverhill Street. But its life was less than that of a high-carbon Bessemer rail at the same location, the two periods being 6 months 18 days and 11 months 13 days. Apparently, however, better results were obtained from nickel steel than this instance would indicate, as Mr. Steward, the roadmaster, regards the nickel-steels as comparable well with ordinary steel. The company tried manganese-steel rails as well. In one case, a nickel-steel rail was put in between two manganese-steel rails, with the result that the manganese-steel rail was found to be taken out because of its failure to equal its companions. The center of the head had been worn down over 1/4 inch, while the corresponding position on a manganese-steel rail disclosed a reduction of but 1/16 inch. But perhaps a more striking example is that of a manganese-steel rail at the Park Street station, where the wear was the same in a period over nine times as long. In fact, a manganese-steel rail laid on April 26th, 1905, showed less than 1/16 inch of surface amounting to only about 1/16 inch after the lapse of 2,400 days. The accompanying curves show the Park Street station, where the manganese-steel rail was laid. It is well seen, however, that the edge, where the transition surface from one to the next, suffered considerably. In fact, the corresponding low portion of the manganese-steel rail from side to side is a "kink" or "bump". It is probable that this is due to the fact that the wear from the flange has been increased. In any case, Mr. Steward has expressed his opinion that the manganese-steel rail will hold out the best service possible as well as that of the open.

Now, it should be observed, the manganese-steel (Continued on page 517.)

## THE CONTAGIOUS DISEASES OF METALS

THE RESEARCHES OF PROF. ERNEST COHEN

It has been known for some time, and probably even in antiquity, that metals are subject to diseased conditions. Prof. Ernest Cohen's researches have thrown considerable light on this question and have demonstrated, moreover, the contagious nature of such diseases, that is to say, a piece of diseased metal has the power of infecting, by a sort of osmotic action, a piece of sound metal with which it is in contact.

THE PEST

In 1861 Erdmann, in a communication made to the Royal Society of Sciences at Leipzig, called attention to a peculiar structural modification of tin which he had observed in some old organ pipes. He attributed the change to the vibrations to which the metal had been subjected. In 1869 Pritzsche of St. Petersburg published observations of similar phenomena, and expressed the opinion that the alteration in the nature of the tin was due to the action of severe cold to which much tin had been exposed, and verified the correctness of this theory experimentally. Other investigators turned their attention to this subject, but the true nature of the modification and the exact conditions governing its appearance and development were not fully understood until they were determined by Prof. Cohen.

The disease studied by Erdmann and Pritzsche is designated by Prof. Cohen as tin pest. The metal thus affected swells in spots, forming wartlike blisters, from which small drops issue and hang suspended in very much the same manner that drops of quicksilver will adhere to polished copper coils. In the further progress of the disease, the blisters become larger and the metallic gloss disappears more and more. The interior of the mass is affected last, as can be shown by sawing through the metal whose surface has become quite dull. When the entire mass has been transformed, it crumbles readily, and consists partly of a granular powder similar to sand, and partly of more or less consistent fibrous lumps of all sizes up to that of a fist. When a piece of tin is cooled artificially, the modification appears first at isolated spots, from which it spreads in wart-like blisters and later forms a columnar structure.

Tin thus modified by the action of cold is distinctly gray, the application of heat produces a remarkable change. Even by merely covering it with hot water, the dark gray color is caused to become materially lighter, approaching that of ordinary tin. The change is due to the temperature exclusively. If a specimen of powdery modified tin is heated in a closed vessel by means of a water bath, it not only assumes a lighter color but decreases in volume quite perceptibly. If it is then cooled again below the freezing point of mercury, it again becomes almost as dark as

it was before heating. If modified tin is heated to fusion, an appreciable proportion will remain in the modified state. The molten portion will upon solidification assume the appearance of ordinary tin, and if cooled to a low temperature, it can be transformed



Brass kettle corroded by the wrought metal disease.

again into the gray modification. Ordinary tin has a specific gravity of 7.28, but gray tin is considerably lighter, having a gravity of only 5.75.

Prof. Cohen directed his attention at first to determining the temperature at which ordinary tin is

formation might proceed in either direction.

Prof. Cohen employed two independent methods for determining this critical temperature. One, an electrical method, consisted in bringing two separate bodies of gray tin into a vessel containing a 10 per cent solution of chlorotannate of ammonium. The two bodies of tin are connected with an apparatus permitting the experimenter to observe and measure any electromotive force arising in the cell. As long as both bodies are of the same temperature, there is no electromotive force. But if one of the tin bodies is given the temperature of boiling water, and the other that of cold water, the heated body is transformed into ordinary white tin, while the cooled body remains gray. The electromotive force manifested under these conditions was measured at different temperatures. At about 20 deg. C. the electromotive force was equal to zero, indicating that the critical temperature is in the neighborhood of 20 deg. C. Prof. Cohen also found that the presence of the chlorotannate of ammonium solution accelerated the transformation considerably, in both directions.

The other method was a volumetric one based on the fact, stated above, that the two forms of tin have different specific gravity. The apparatus employed is very similar to an ordinary thermometer, except that the capillary tube is open at the top. The lower part of the bulb is filled with gray tin, the upper part and a portion of the capillary tube with a liquid inert relatively to tin, such as petroleum. The apparatus is heated to a temperature (say 35 deg. C.) a few degrees above the probable critical point, so that a portion of the gray tin is transformed into the white variety. Thus the apparatus is kept for some time at a constant temperature of say 31 deg. C. and the behavior of the petroleum column is observed by means of the scale. After a few minutes it will be found to have fallen a few millimeters (thus indicating that 31 deg. C. is still above the critical temperature, for as long as the formation of white tin continues, the mass of tin contracts in volume, owing to the greater specific gravity of white tin). The temperature being then kept constant for a time, say at 15 deg. C., observation will show a rise of the petroleum column, thus indicating that the volume of the tin has increased by the formation of the specifically lighter gray tin, so that the critical point must be above 15 deg. C. By successive operations a gradual approach to the critical

point is obtained by working at temperatures alternately above and below said point, and when the limits have been restricted sufficiently, interpolation is resorted to. This method also showed that the critical temperature must be in the neighborhood of 20 deg. C., and careful determination proved it to be almost exactly 18 deg. Centigrade (about 65 deg. Fahrenheit).

Since all tin utensils employed by us are made of the white modification, it follows that they are gen-



Antique coffee pot perforated by the tin disease.

Results of inoculation with wrought metal disease.

transformed into the gray modification, the results obtained by former investigators differing widely, some having found 35 deg. (Centigrade) as the critical point, others 100 deg., etc. Pritzsche's experiments indicating that the transformation was unalterable or reversible, it was to be expected that there would be a definite temperature at which the trans-



A dark block of brass the three weeks after infection.



Infected leaf tin.



Metal infected by tin pest.



Infected sheet tin from Rosenburg (Ty. Hall).

CONTAGIOUS DISEASES OF METALS.







# Hamilton's Round-Trip Aeroplane Flight from New York to Philadelphia

## A REMARKABLE CROSS-COUNTRY FLIGHT

Only a few days after Glenn H. Curtiss's flight from Albany to New York, aviator Charles E. Hamilton made a more daring and thrilling flight from New York to Philadelphia. This second flight was planned by the New York Times and the Philadelphia Public Ledger and aviator Hamilton, carrying a letter from

Mayor Gaynor of New York to Governor Stuart of Pennsylvania, executed the flight on schedule time. During a considerable part of the trip he raced a special train which at times found difficulty in keeping up with him.

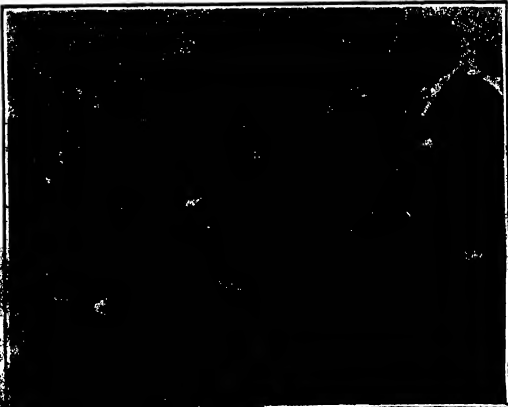
The start was made from Governor's Island at 7:30

A. M. on Monday, June 13th. The actual start took place only after Hamilton had broken a propeller in attempting to start the first time, due to the bird striking a stick that lay upon the ground. As soon as he had substituted a new propeller—the very one used

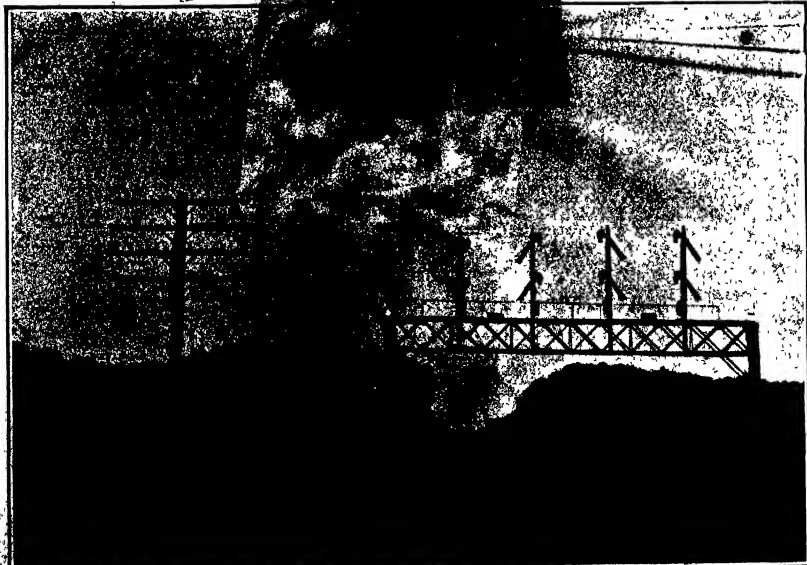
(Continued on page 527.)



Walter Brookins flying at the Indianapolis meet. Brookins made a new height record of 4,000 feet. For description see page 527.



Message to Gov. Stuart upon his departure.



Hamilton flying above the Pennsylvania Railroad tracks in pursuit of the special train. HAMILTON'S ROUND-TRIP AEROPLANE FLIGHT FROM NEW YORK TO PHILADELPHIA.



# The Home Laboratory

(The plates of the Home Laboratory will be glad to receive any suggestions for this department and will pay for them promptly if suitable.)

## WARNING! CHEMICALS

BE VERY CAREFUL! HANDLE CHEMICALS WITH CARE! NEVER DRINK!

To cause two objects to change places that is, to pass from one vessel into another and vice versa is a trick sometimes done by conjurers. What is new



CONTENTS OF TUBES BEFORE BEAKING

In the performance described here is the evident non-interference of the magician and the possibility of watching the trick closely in full light. The vessels used are two perfectly transparent glass test tubes. Every spectator can see that they contain nothing but the two substances about to change places. One of these is a fluid, transparent, colorless liquid which fills about one-half of the tube. The other tube contains nothing but a white, opaque powder. Both tubes are given to some skeptical spectators with the assurance that they be kept well apart, one tube of each kind, and that the experimenter should remember which the liquid or solid is kept in the right or left tube. The skeptical person is then ordered to close the tubes with his thumb and to shake them. After shaking complied with this request, he will find that the two substances have apparently changed places, the tube which contained a white opaque solid now contains a colorless transparent liquid and the tube which contained a watery liquid is now filled with white opaque perfectly solid substance.

Some curious and but little known properties of opaque substances are used for this performance. One of them is the property of solid to remain in the fluid state with such a tenacity (in open vessels) of presence of unfiltered air) and for such a time that no other substance equals it in that respect, even perhaps the metal palladium. Solid is used in making for some kinds of internal troubles and is sold for every drugstore. Some ten grammes of it are placed into a clean and dry test tube, care being taken not to leave crystals adhering on the walls of the tube.



CONTENTS OF TUBES AFTER BEAKING

The change is then made over any time. (A candle with the flame point of solid is at 45 deg. Centigrade.) Once liquid, it is heated a trifle over the flame point, so as to break any particles of solid still left in the liquid. This is then allowed to cool and to solidify. The solidification, even five or three hours later, is complete. Covering it to keep the oil well above the solid.

the crystallization but vigorous shaking for about ten seconds invariably transforms the liquid into a solid white mass. At the moment of the solidification the cold tube instantaneously becomes hot.

The property of solid camphor to rapidly melt into a liquid compound whenever ground or shaken with solid chloral hydrate is used in the other test tube. The two chemicals must be finely powdered and the camphor is sprinkled with a few drops of alcohol before being ground. The two white powders look alike and are supported in the tube, two parts in volume of camphor being taken for one of chloral hydrate. The shaking rapidly mixes and liquefies them. Large tubes or bottles of any thickness can be used when the experiment is made in a hall. The fusion of solid is then produced in a water bath.

## SHIMMERING TUBES FROM ELECTRIC LIGHT BURNS

BY JAMES BAILEY

Many people have wished to perform experiments with Geissler tubes but owing to their high cost have not been able to do so.

By the following simple and inexpensive method anyone who possesses a one-inch or larger induction coil can make a very good substitute for a Geissler tube from any of the standard electric light bulbs. Burned out lamps or lamps in which the filaments are broken give the best results and can be had for next to nothing. The effect is much better if the filament is broken into fine pieces, as it then does not interfere with the discharge in the bulb. Metal filaments can easily be broken by striking the lamp with the hand, but in carbon lamps the filament is sometimes so tough

that it is necessary to break it with a sharp knife or a pair of pliers. The filament is then broken into fine pieces and the bulb is then filled with a gas such as nitrogen or neon.

The bulb is then sealed off and the gas is then drawn out and the bulb is then filled with a gas such as nitrogen or neon.

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direct or alternating current. The interruptions obtained with this type of interrupter are very high, being in the neighborhood of 1000 per second.

The electrolytic and electrodes are contained in a wet battery jar. A wood plug should be turned to fit tightly in the top of the jar and bolted thoroughly in paraffin to protect it from the acid fumes. A glass tube 4 inches long with an internal diameter of  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch should be procured and a hole slightly larger than the external diameter of the tube bored through the center of the wood cover. The tube is held in position by a heavy brass screw which is driven through the plug. The anode is a  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch round brass rod should be straight.



A SIMPLE ELECTROLYTIC INTERRUPTER

used so as to slide very easily through the glass tube. One end of the rod should be squared off and the other end threaded and a tapered brass ball fitted to it. It is weight by a screw thread feeds the rod into the solution as it is used. One side of the ball should be tapered and fitted with a binding post for connecting purposes. The cathode consists of a lead strip  $\frac{1}{4}$  by  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch suspended in the solution from a machine screw the threaded end of which terminates in a binding post for connections. To assemble: Fill the jar a third full with a 10 per cent solution of sulphuric or nitric acid. Place the wood cover on firmly, insert the glass tube through the hole till it is  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch from the bottom of the jar and tighten the spring against it. Then put the rod through the glass tube till it is resting on the bottom of the jar. In use when the circuit through the apparatus is closed, a gas is evolved at the bottom of the jar and the solution is rapidly agitated. The bubbles break on the anode, thus interrupting the current. If the interrupter is used on alternating current the anode will wear down quickly. Connections using alternating current are identical to the same as direct, but without regard to polarity as alternating current constantly reverses poles. If intended for continuous work the electrolyte should be cooled by running water through a coiled glass tube in the bottom of the jar. This interrupter will successfully operate coils from the small sizes up to the 10 inch size and is especially desirable in wire less telegraphic transmission as it is materially in the production of a penetrating high frequency wave.

## DEVICE FOR TESTING ELECTRIC WIRES

BY W. H. WARD, JR.

In testing electric wiring for open circuits, grounds or short circuits it is often necessary to skin the insulation from the wire under test in a number of places so as to connect them to a magneto or other testing device. The accompanying illustration shows



TESTING NEEDLE FOR INSULATED WIRE

A device which does away with this necessity for it contains a sharp needle point which can be easily pushed through the insulation until it makes a good electrical contact with the wire within. The device is made out of a hard wood handle bored through its whole length to the diameter of the needle. The small end is then countersunk to a larger diameter and a plug is made that will drive tightly into the countersink. The next step is to procure a large sized sewing needle which is driven through the plug as shown in the sketch. The eye end of the needle is soldered to a length of lamp cord which is passed

## CONSTRUCTION OF A SIMPLE ELECTROLYTIC INTERRUPTER

BY JAMES BAILEY

The electrolytic current interrupter described here may be used in place of the troublesome vibrator on spark coils. It is to be operated on 50 to 250 volts



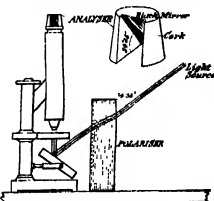
through the handle as shown. The plug is then driven into place and the testing handle is ready for use.

## POLARISCORE ATTACHMENT FOR MICROSCOPE

Illustrated herewith is a list of apparatus by means of which polarized light may be used with any microscope without changing the instrument itself. The polarizer consists of one down  $4 \times 5$  inch glass negatives which have been thoroughly cleaned and dusted, and are contained in the original box, which has its top and bottom cut out, leaving just enough card around the edges to hold the plates in position.

The analyzer comprises a piece of blackened cork with a wedge-shaped slot cut in one side and a bit of black mirror firmly pressed into position in the slot at the polarizing angle. This rests on the eyepiece of the microscope and may be turned at any angle in the horizontal plane. The black mirror is made of plate glass or cover glass, coated on the back with a mixture of lampblack and shellac varnish or, if more convenient, lampblack and glue. The drawing shows the arrangement of the apparatus with the "Nicol's" crossed. A small scale may be attached to the top of the analyzer, so that the angle through which it is turned may be noted.

This scheme may also be applied to a simple, or dissecting, microscope. For simplicity and cheapness, combined with a high degree of efficiency, I do not

**MICROSCOPE ARRANGED AS POLARISCOPE**

think this apparatus can be excelled The pleasure  
to be derived from its use is infinite

AN ELECTROPLATING OUTFIT  
WITH PRACTICAL WORKING FORMULAE  
BY A. J. CANNAN

Those who wish to undertake the electro-deposition of metals upon a small scale whether as a business or for pleasure will find that the apparatus and utensils here described will meet the ordinary requirements.

The photograph reproduced herewith shows the wooden depositing tank and battery of an outfit in actual use. The battery cells are made exactly as explained on page 445 of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN of May 25th 1910.

[illegible]

**Silver Plating.** Dissolve 2½ ounces silver in a glass flask by adding 3 ounces nitric acid and 1 ounce distilled water. Heat the flask slightly and place it where the red nitrous fumes will pass off into a flue, or out of doors. When the silver has become dissolved, add a quart of distilled water, stir the mixture well, then add gradually about 5 fluid ounces pure hydrochloric acid, stirring the mixture well with a glass rod. Place the flask in a dark place while the white precipitate (chloride of silver) is settling.

pour of the air liquid, add another quart of water; stir well, allow it to settle, decant; and wash a third time. This will free the precipitates of impurities formed. Dissolve  $\frac{1}{4}$  pound cyanide of potassium in  $\frac{1}{4}$  gallon of distilled water, stir quickly at a time to the chloride of silver. Stir this well, and continue to add the cyanide solution until the chloride of silver has only just been dissolved. Allow a little time to elapse between each addition. Add all dissolved silver to the cyanide solution, and make up the quantity to 15 gallons with distilled water. This will be the right quantity to fill the wooden tank, with one ounce of silver to the gallon. Let this solution stand for twenty-four hours, so that all dirt will settle, and then add the solution into the tank. The solution is now ready for use.

Two sheets of the silver about 5 inches square must be used for the anodes, suspended by either copper wire or silver wire hooks upon the copper rod (shown in the illustration) attached to the wire from the carbon electrode. The silver wire hooks must be attached to the rod through the articles to be plated must be suspended, this rod being attached to the stee of the battery. The articles to be plated must be cleaned by boiling them in a strong solution of common washing soda, and then immersing them in a solution of nitric acid, and then immersing them individually with a stiff nail brush dipped in pumice powder or brick dust. Articles of German silver, brass, or copper, after scouring and being attached to the silvering wire, must be dipped into a solution of potassium cyanide, and then into a solution of silver in water. This will give a chemically clean surface and cause the silver to adhere firmly when the depositing tank takes place in the silver bath. Three or four spoonons of soda ash should be added to each gallon of water, and for each gallon of water should be added one ounce of soda ash. The solution should be kept at a temperature of 60° to 70° F. and the articles should be immersed in the solution for a period of 10 to 15 minutes. The solution should be kept at a temperature of 60° to 70° F. and the articles should be immersed in the solution for a period of 10 to 15 minutes.

**Copper Plating Articles.**—The following recipe for bringing metal plates must be soaked with a deposit of copper in the solution containing boric acid, which can be used either cold or hot. If used hot, an enameled iron boiler will answer the purpose, but the heat must not exceed 180 degrees Fahrenheit for a bath of the following kind: Dissolve 100 grains of sulphate of copper in 1 quart of water. Also 100 grains carbonate of soda in 1 quart of water, and about 10 ounces cyanide of potassium in 1 quart water. Add the carbonate of soda to the cyanide and stir the mixture well. Add enough strong liquid ammonia to dissolve the precipitate. Then add gradually the cyanide solution until the blue color disappears. Pour the solution into a glass dish, and after allowing the sediment to subside, pour off the clear liquid into the depositing tank. Have two squares of flexible square using the second square according to the size of the plate to be plated. The two batteries or sets above referred to will perform all the work of deposition that this article describes. The cleaning of small iron or steel articles should be done just as the articles are to be plated. When the articles are coppered they must be scrubbed-brushed before receiving a deposit of nickel, silver, or gold; then soaked with fine pumice and water. They will then acquire a

**Gold Plating**—Electro-gilding in a small way is best done by making the gold solution as follows. Dissolve in 1 quart of hot distilled water 1 ounce of cyanide of potassium. Take a small porous pot and fill it about two-thirds full. Place it in the inner vessel of an oatmeal kettle, and pour in this vessel the balance of cyanide solution. Pour a quart of hot water into the outer vessel, and bring it to the boiling point. Take a strip of sheet copper, fix a plate

of copper wire in it, and heated it in a water bath. Attach the wire to the terminal of the battery, and a piece of sheet gold to the other, counting from the carbon of the second cell of the battery. Note the weight of the gold. Place the sheet gold in the liquid bath, surround the porous pot with a layer of cotton, and the two cells to combine with it; allow the battery to stand for 24 hours. Remove the porous pot, throw away its contents, use the remaining liquid for the gold depositing, and the pieces of sheet gold can be used for the anode. Any article after being well cleaned can be treated with gold in this bath, giving a very rich color. Stale beer is the best liquid to use with a sheet of brass in brightening the deposit; previous to burning the gold, the article should be dried in the alcohol, and then in oil. The articles after rinsing should be dried in hot, woodcock sawdust.

**Sine Plating**—copper plates can readily be coated with zinc by using the following solutions (Watts's process): 2½ gallons water, pound cyanide of potassium, 10 slugs, 100 ounces of 53.8% ammonia. Place this in one of the tanks. Fill two large porous pots with a plain cyanide solution, consisting of 4 ounces of potassium cyanide to 1 quart water. Place a strip of sheet copper the width of the porous pot in each, and connect the copper with the battery as for gold, using two large clean sine plates in the ammonia cyanide solution until about 6 ounces of zinc have been dissolved. Remove the porous cells and throw the contents away.

### COMPLETE OUTFIT FOR ELECTROPLATING

Add 5 ounces carbonate of potash, stir until dissolved, let the liquid stand until the dirty matter has subsided, and then siphon off the clear liquid, which is now ready for use. Use the articles as for silver, using sheet zinc for the anode. A very fine deposit can be obtained by this solution. The articles should be removed occasionally to see that the deposit is going on satisfactorily. If not, scour them slightly with emery and water, rinse, and return to the bath. When the deposit is complete, the articles may be left then in cold or scratch brush.

[illegible]

Pewter, lead, or zinc articles must be electro-coppered previous to silvering or gilding, as well as wrought iron and steel. Special solutions must be made for plating these articles upon a large scale without coppering.

A liquid Japan for leather is made as follows: Take four pounds of malmes, half a pound of lamp black, half a pound of sweet oil, and an equal quantity of gum arabic, also half a pint of turpentine. Mix well in 16 pounds of water; apply heat and when dry add one pint of alcohol.















continued from page 428.

but Hamilton withdrew from the business of the aviator, a man unknown. The motor does not seem to have been as thoroughly inspected as the rest of the machine, and the aviator has expressed the opinion that some misgiving about the motor was the cause of the explosion. The motor was a gas engine of the cylinder allowed oil to escape by the piston and feet the engine. There was no interruption in the sparking current supplied by the high-tension Bosch magneto. At any rate, Hamilton's flight showed the possibility of carrying mail and important dispatches, and it is interesting to note that Representative Brough of Texas has introduced a bill into Congress calling for the investigation of the Post Office Department into the airplane for the purpose of carrying mail. Also a few days after Hamilton's flight, the French war authorities commanded M. Hériot to carry a message from the camp of Chalons in Paris, which he did promptly in his monoplane with out any mishap. During the present war Hamilton is to experiment for the government at Nashville, Tenn., upon the dropping of explosives from the air. These experiments will be carried on during the maneuvers.

The flights of Curtiss and Hamilton have spurred many building activities to attempt in the near future to cross country flights for prizes, and new prizes are being offered almost daily for such feats. We wish to remind our aviators that they stand a chance of winning the Scientific American Trophy if they send in their entry by us or to the Aero Club of America twenty-four hours in advance. The aviator making the longest cross-country flight this year will win the trophy for 1910.

Emery.

There are three qualities of emery used in this country—Naxos or Greek, Turkish, and American.

The Naxos brand is imported from the island of Naxos (Grecian Archipelago). Greece, the mine being controlled by the Grecian government. Naxos emery contains a large percentage of alumina (about 65 per cent). This emery has most excellent fracture, the grain being very hard and very sharp, and therefore especially adapted for use in grinding wheels. These characteristics prevent its use, to any extent, for polishing purposes, as it neither "breaks down" nor granulates under pressure of the work, as do the other qualities (Turkish and American). An ideal emery for polishing must present very cutting points constantly. The Naxos grains are so hard and sharp that it does not properly granulate, therefore it is not a desirable polishing medium, except for certain special classes of work. Naxos emery, owing to its large percentage of alumina, follows corundum in the scale of hardness.

Good Turkish emery contains anywhere from 15 per cent to 35 per cent oxide of iron, and is therefore of the softest variety produced, yet is successfully and largely used for certain classes of "soft work."

Most of the Naxos and Turkish emery brought to this country comes in pieces ranging from the size of a marble up to 35 or 40 pounds in weight. Formerly it was brought over as ballast, and it became some an important commodity commercially, that during the last year the emery it has been transported across the water as superior sand. Turkish emery is brought to the supports of Asia Minor in the same primitive fashion which has existed for many years—in the back of donkeys. The emery is taken to the mining locality. The ore is taken

**ICE**—Continued from page 428.

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From the surface only, and no attempt is made to follow the emery "down" when they dip below the surface. Thus their mining methods are thoroughly characteristic of the inhabitants of the entire Turkish coast, and are not at all emery points are Knyazk, Aiden, and Aiden's. The different brands of coarse vary according to the purity of the emery—the more the amount of oxide of alumina, the better the quality.

The American emery is mined near Vesiklik, New York State. Some very excellent use has been taken out at that place but the bulk of the emery is high in oxide of iron and thence soft. This is also a small deposit in the State of Kansas, but the deposit is insignificant and the quality of the emery of an inferior character.

The following are the physical properties of the emery: Specific gravity, 4.050 to 4.100. It is thus placed in rank of hardness pure Naxos 8½, pure Turkish 8½, pure American 8½. The chemical analysis of the emery is as follows:

In its manufacture the emery passes through great chills and is crushed. It then passes over screens under rotating drums and is sorted into sizes. It is packed directly into full kegs of about 17 pounds and smaller kegs of about 7½ pounds. The quantity of the emery is far determined by the mesh in number of inch in the cloth in the square inch. The physical analysis are as follows:

At about 60 per cent of all emery is washed with water and then "blown" with a blow to remove the mucous materials and other foreign matter. Emery so treated of course costs more to produce, but this treatment results in a more uniform and more cut more evenly and is more durable than other emery.

Much improvement has taken place in the manufacture of emery in recent years, the principal innovation being the "concentrating" machine through the use of which the emery is "tailed." This process also removes the mucous materials and reduces the emery of low grade.

The consumption of emery in this country for both grinding and polishing purposes, in 1900 was about 9,000 short tons or 18,000,000 pounds.

Emery is a commodity in the usual sense of the word, and is therefore in disposable and the use of it is constantly increasing. There is no material for polishing purposes which could be successfully substituted for the reason that it is peculiarly fitted for this work. For polishing purposes corundum is too hard, on the other hand garnet, quartz, and flint are too soft. The emery has that physical property of toughness which is possessed to a marked degree by emery.

It is stated in the Electrical World that of the 100,000 horse-power capacity represented by the Niagara Falls, only about 5.5 per cent, or about 5,500 horse-power, has been thus far utilized. Of this, 126,000 horse-power is employed in the electric power plant, and 126,000 horse-power for railway service. 38,400 horse-power for lighting, and 45,600 horse-power for various industrial services. Nearly 15,000 horse-power is transmitted to points more than ten miles from the falls. Of this amount 13,800 horse-power is transmitted over a distance of more than 100 miles, while 12,500 horse-power is transmitted between 75 and 100 miles.









